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M,DCCC,XI.

With an APPENDIX.

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ERRATA in Volume LXIV.

Page 5. l. 27. put a comma after 'Review.'
29. l. 11. insert *to* after 'presented.'
53. l. 6. from bott. for 'exerting,' r. *exciting*.
60. l. 18. for 'its,' r. *his*.
61. l. 12. from bott. for 'Title page, 436,' r. *Ibid. page* 436.
197. l. 7. and 6. from bott. the word '*however*' should be placed after '*foundation*.'
224. l. 22. for 'Logadic,' r. *Logœdic*.
321. note, for p. 32. r. *p*. 321.
383. l. 21. insert *of* after 'him.'
414. note †, for 'Paxiteles,' r. *Praxiteles*.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1811.

Art. I. *Observations on the Principles which regulate the Course of Exchange;* and on the present depreciated State of the Currency. By William Blake, Esq., F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 132. 3s. Lloyd, 1810.

In our review of Sir John Sinclair's examination of the Bullion-Report, (M. R. for November,) we enlarged on the state of our exchanges with the Continent, and explained the influence which they have had in producing our present mercantile misfortunes and the depreciation of our paper. Our observations were then strictly *practical*, the discussion of the *principles* of exchange being adjourned to a future Number; and for this investigation the pamphlet now before us will afford a fit opportunity. While we state that it does not often fall to our lot to peruse, in our critical capacity, so perspicuous and able a performance, it is also due to Mr. Blake to add that the publication of his pamphlet took place before the Bullion-Committee made their Report; and though it investigates only one part of the complicated inquiry which at present occupies the attention of the public and the Legislature, *that* part is both the most difficult and the most important: the principles of exchange forming, as it were, a key to unlock the entrance of that mysterious recess, the approach to which appears to puzzle so many of our countrymen.

Like other writers on the subject of money, Mr. Blake seems to be strongly impressed with a sense of the ignorance that has hitherto prevailed concerning it, and has therefore chosen to give his illustrations at great length. We cannot help thinking that he has carried this point rather too far; and that, in common with the most eminent authors on political economy, he has not been duly sensible that brevity is compatible with perspicuity, and how much less forbidding that study may be rendered by a careful condensation. His pamphlet, however, is intitled, both by its intrinsic merit and by the interest of the subject, to a larger share of attention than we generally allot to

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to such productions; and we shall accordingly endeavour, by combining our views with his, to afford in the following pages a complete explanation of the subject of exchange.

It may be right to premise that this is one of the most dry and abstruse topics in the whole range of political economy; and that close attention will be requisite to comprehend and follow the operation of the leading principles: but this difficulty once surmounted, the reader will find the conclusions clear and satisfactory. We shall observe, in the arrangement of our remarks, the established division into the heads of *real*, *nominal*, and *computed* exchange.

Real Exchange. The real exchange is founded on actual transactions, and rises or falls according as their balance inclines to the one country or the other. Equality of exports and imports of merchandise must produce a correspondent equality of debts and credits; and the real exchange will then, in course, be at par: — but, when any deviation from this equality takes place, whether in the way of import or of export, a balance to be paid will arise, which is most readily settled by bills of exchange. Hence bills on the creditor-country will be bought up in the debtor-country at a premium; and whenever the balance of transactions has been so much on the one side as to carry the premium on bills above the expence of transporting the precious metals, recourse will be had to them, as a less disadvantageous remittance than bills at a high premium. The chief expence on the transmission of specie is insurance; which, of course, varies greatly according to political circumstances. In peace, the transmission of specie between England and the Continent costs very little; in a war, conducted like the last, with some regard to the interests of commerce, it costs between three and four per cent.*; and in a struggle like the present, in which all consideration of the rights of neutrals and of the benefits of trade appears to be absorbed in indiscriminate hostility, the transportation and insurance of specie are found to vary from four to seven per cent. † It is thus doubtful how soon, in the case of a rising exchange, recourse may be had to specie as a preventive of a farther rise. Its power as an antidote will necessarily depend on the proportion which the quantity, that may be exported, is found to bear to the demand for remittances. Of coin, the stock is in general so narrowly adjusted to the wants of circulation, that only a small proportion of it can be spared. Of bullion, the amount is not necessarily limited: but, being seldom collected in large quantities in any particular quarter, the supply, in the case of a heavy or continued drain, is to be sought from other countries. Our export of bullion to the Continent during the last two years, though materially smaller than we might infer from a reference to the apparent rate of the exchange, could not have been managed without the aid of imports from Spanish America.

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* Lords Committee of Secrecy, 1797.

† Report of the Bullion-Committee.

The commercial intercourse of nations has a perpetual tendency to equality; and hence a similar tendency in regard to the real exchange: but this, the natural course, is liable to be disturbed by two great causes, (exclusive of minor interruptions,) viz. a deficient harvest, and the foreign expenditure of government. Corn forms so large and so indispensable a portion of national consumption, that a failure of its produce at home necessarily leads to purchases from abroad, of such an extent as to alter materially the usual proportion of export and import. The foreign expenditure of government consists either of subsidies, or of the cost of national troops employed abroad. It has been customary with our government to pay a part of this expenditure in bullion, or foreign coin, but more in bills of exchange: the latter may take place in two ways; by draught on or by remittance from the Treasury. In the former case, which is the more frequent of the two, the bills drawn on the Treasury, by our commissary or paymaster abroad, are turned into cash by being sold to the merchants on the spot; in the other, mercantile bills on the Continent are bought on the London exchange for account of the Treasury, and transmitted to the station on which they are wanted. In either case, the amount required has been generally so great as to derange the state of exchange, and to cause great prejudice to the trading interests of the country.

The manner in which the real exchange is perpetually tending towards equality is as follows: Merchants receive intelligence by every post of the prices of commodities abroad, and are enabled to form calculations of the prospect of advantage by making shipments to or receiving them from particular quarters. The rate of exchange with the place in question is a primary point in the calculation: an unfavourable exchange operates as a bounty on export. If, for example, the exchange between London and Hamburgh be against London, the London merchant, on sending goods to Hamburgh for sale, receives, in return, a remittance for the sale-price of such goods, along with the current premium of exchange on the amount of that remittance. Hence a general disposition to such shipments, till, as is the case in all competitions of adventure, the profit is so reduced as to render them no longer expedient; a process, in the course of which the exchange can

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scarcely fail to be brought down. By the converse of the case, a favourable exchange operates as a bounty on import. The merchandise, which is thus made subservient to the restoration of the equilibrium of exchange, is not necessarily of any peculiar kind, but will be generally found to consist in an extension of the accustomed traffic:—in an increased transmission of those articles which, from local circumstances, one country is enabled to supply on better terms than its neighbours; and of which, of course, its export-trade is principally formed. Bullion not belonging to this class, and being nearly on a level in point of price throughout the mercantile community at large, will not be employed as a corrective of exchange till the rate of exchange has risen so as to do something more than defray the expences of its transit. After the exchange has risen so far, bullion, from being a vendible commodity in all quarters, is likely to become a favourite article of remittance. The expence of its transit forms therefore a kind of natural limit to the rise of exchange; and when that rise continues, during a length of time, above the cost of transporting bullion, we may well be led to suspect the existence of a depreciation of currency.

It is obvious that the transit of bullion, in quantity, from one state to another, will tend to lower its price in the country to which it goes, while it raises the price in that from which it is sent; and this, as far as it prevails, is one of the circumstances which co-operate towards restoring the equilibrium. It shews, in conjunction with other circumstances, that a balance of exchange, arising from causes purely commercial, is not likely to require the transit of much bullion, and experiences a corrective influence in every direction: but the foreign expenditure of a government is a very different matter. This, when large, may exceed all that the export of goods can discharge with a profit to the exporter, even when stimulated by a bounty. The exchange rising, consequently, to the rate that affords a high profit on the export of bullion, may create such a demand on the bullion-market as will render bullion dearer than coin. As soon as this takes place, and the precious metals have become less valuable in the shape of coin than in that of bullion, the coin will be sought for the purpose of converting it into a more profitable form. The way to obtain it in this country, when the Bank pays in cash, is to drain it from the Bank; and, when cash-payments are suspended, to collect it privately from the general circulation. We shall presently explain at some length the use which is generally made of coin thus collected: but our immediate business is with the rate of exchange, and the manner in which the export of coin may be made subservient to retarding its farther rise.

Our

Our coin may be exported for this purpose in two ways, either in the shape of coin when collected; or in that of bullion, after having undergone the process of melting: both are contrary to certain of our laws: but these are laws which it has never been found practicable to carry completely into effect, and which serve no farther purpose than that of clogging the export of coin with a charge proportioned to the risque incurred in the evasion.

We have thus traced the operation of a high, or, in other words, an unfavourable rate of exchange, in prompting the export first of merchandise, next of bullion, and lastly of coin. All this it is essential to understand, that we may avoid the general error of imagining that the precious metals, when exported, are required, not as a remittance, but for some specific use in the quarter to which they are sent. This error we are the rather induced to notice, because it pervades the evidence of several of the witnesses examined by the Bullion-Committee; and because the wants of Bonaparte's military chest supply a first-rate argument to the opponents of the resumption of our cash-payments. Those who are so vehemently alarmed, lest our arch enemy should succeed in effecting a drain of the gold in the Bank, may rest assured that, wide as are his dominions, no part of them can extract specie from this country otherwise than through the medium of an unfavourable real exchange. How far we have ourselves been the authors of the present state of exchange, and how far its continuance depends on the disposition of our government, may be judged from what was said, in our November Review of the nature of the American trade with the Continent. A favourable harvest has already alleviated a pressure of one kind on our exchange; and if to this we add a sound policy towards America, we may turn into ridicule any attempt to deprive us of our specie. Were Bonaparte even to go the length of paying a premium for our guineas, we might safely give a welcome to this fresh proof of his malignity and of his ignorance of trade: assured that it would surpass even his imperial power to withhold them; and that short would be the interval ere they were again landed on our shores. — Let us keep two things steadily in mind; first, that bullion is not in particular demand on the Continent*; and next, that the profit on its export is very small, even at the present high exchange, because, (as we shall shew presently,) as far as the rise of exchange proceeds from the depreciation of our notes, it is a *nominal* rise, and affords no inducement whatever to export specie.

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* Bullion-Report, p. 3.

It is greatly to be regretted that a matter of such importance to the welfare of commerce, as the principles of money and exchange, should wear so forbidding an aspect to inquirers. Much of the intricacy attendant on it might (as Mr. Blake remarks,) have been prevented, had the dealers in bullion been a class confined to the mere supply of the commodity, as an article of manufacture and merchandise, without meddling with bills of exchange. Bullion, in that case, would not have had so many mysterious properties ascribed to it; its importation would not have been accounted synonimous with national opulence; nor would its exportation have been deemed the forerunner of national impoverishment. The fact would have been apparent that its importation took place to supply the wants of manufacture at home, or to meet the demands of some particular branch of trade abroad, like that of China, in which bullion was formerly a primary requisite. Such would have been its general course; and as long as this was the case, it would have borne no peculiar character, but have been considered as one of the mere commodities of trade. All this while, it would have remained in the management of the bullion-dealers; and when it passed from their hands into those of the bill-dealer, or general merchant, it would have been only in the case (necessarily rare) in which the inequality of the exchange had become so great as to exceed the transit-expences of bullion. In such cases, it was no longer to be considered as a mere commodity; another property became apparent, the property of being universally exchangeable;—which, after all, is the only peculiarity that it possesses, since it no more constitutes wealth than any other commodity.

Nominal Exchange. By the nominal exchange between two countries, is meant, not that which is affected by a balance of actual transactions, but that which is produced by an alteration in the currency of either. The currency of a country may be affected in its value in three ways; 1st, by debasing the quality of the metal; 2d, by reducing its weight; 3d, by *artificially* increasing or diminishing its total amount. The first of these methods is now excluded, in a manner, from civilized society; and the second may also be considered as banished from the practice of civilized governments: but its effects may notwithstanding be felt according to the state of wear of the coin of different countries. The *par* of exchange is that sum of the currency of either, which contains the same value of gold or silver as a given sum of the currency of the other. Thus 24 livres of France constituting the same value of silver as a pound sterling, the par of exchange with France formerly was 24. The par once fixed, all alterations of the coin necessarily cause deviations from it. Before the great reformation of our gold coin in 1774, our exchange with France was, on account of the lightness of our coin, two or three per cent. below par: but after the reformation it rose to par.—Another kind of deviation from par, distinct from the wear of coin, arises from the standard of one country being gold, while that of another is silver; the relative value of these metals being by no means permanent, but fluctuating perhaps in no long course of years to an extent of three, four, or five per cent.—However, since the adoption of the modern practice of forming a circulating medium by a mixture of paper with coin, the chief cause of fluctuation, in the nominal exchange, has consisted, not in any change incident to the metallic part of the currency, but in an artificial alteration of the whole amount of the currency; that is, an alteration in the amount of the money, without a correspondent alteration in the amount of the commodities circulated by the money. Before the adoption of paper, currency could not superabound, because an equivalent was previously paid for it by the issuer. No such trade as that of issuing currency then existed;—no class of individuals whose profits depended on the amount which they were enabled to keep in a course of circulation. Now, whenever the temptation to over-issue has led (by whatever process) to an increase of currency without a correspondent increase of exchangeable commodities, the value of the currency must fall, in pursuance of the general principle that excess of quantity decreases price;—and foreign countries having nothing to do with our deteriorations of money, our exchange with them must fall in proportion to the fall of our currency below its former value.

Such are the causes which operate on the nominal exchange. Their effects, when examined, will be found strictly *nominal*, and incapable of giving rise to any of those counteracting circumstances in trade, of which the fluctuations of the *real* exchange are productive. This fact will be most readily understood by analyzing a practical case. Suppose our currency to have fallen, by debasement or by over-issue, ten per cent., and (which is the same thing) our commodities to have risen as much; our foreign exchanges are then of course ten per cent. against us. An individual in London, owing 100l. in Hamburgh, can have recourse to no method of payment less unfavourable than that of paying 110l. English currency for a bill of 100l. on Hamburgh. Bullion having risen ten per cent. like other commodities, the amount, which, when shipped to Hamburgh, would yield 100l., must cost in London 110l. The case is similar in regard to all other kinds of merchandise.—Thus, while the real exchange is prevented by the natural tendency of trade towards equality from remaining long on the one side or the other, to any considerable degree, the nominal exchange *must remain permanently unequal, until the currency be reformed.*—Let us now consider in what way this reform takes place.

When the depreciation arises from wear of coin, which was the case among ourselves before 1774, the obvious remedy is a new coinage:—but the matter which it behoves us, at the present juncture, to investigate, is much more complicated. It is the case of a mixed currency of coin and paper, undergoing depreciation from excess of paper, and with a law prohibiting any difference of price between the paper and the coin. Were the paper lawfully saleable at a discount, the market-price would point out the distinct value of each; and coin would maintain its worth both in home-purchases and foreign exchanges, while the depreciation of paper in both would be equal; a depreciation which, in regard to foreign transactions, would point out accurately the difference between the rates of real and those of nominal exchange. While, however, the law prohibits, as with us, the sale of paper at a discount, coin becomes involved in the fall of paper; and increasing efforts will be made to rescue it from so disadvantageous a partnership. It will be collected, as long as the Bank pays in cash, by draining it from the Bank in exchange for notes; and, when the Bank has suspended cash-payments, it will be gathered, by secret and indirect methods, from general circulation. The specie, thus collected, is worth more at home in the shape of bullion than in that of coin; and worth more abroad than at home in either shape. The coin, therefore, will be made to disappear in two ways; by melting for sale at home as bullion, and by export. Of these modes, melting is the much more general and effectual process: it is so easily performed that no penalties can restrain it; and it costs so little, that it can be carried on with vigour at a rate of profit which is too small to defray the charge of export. The export of specie, on the other hand, depends, as we have seen, on the state of the real exchange: with the nominal exchange it has little to do, unless in the particular case in which melting has been carried so far as to make bullion a cheaper article of merchandise at home than abroad. Previously to 1774, melting was practised to a great extent: but the bullion procured from coin being bought up by the Bank for the purpose of re-coining, it is not likely that any export whatever of melted coin took place. During the last two years, melting has gone on without any re-purchase on the part of the Bank. Some export has no doubt occurred, particularly at the period in which the *real* exchange was greatly against us; yet that a part only of our melted coin has been exported is apparent from the remarkable fact that, while our coin is so much reduced, we continue to have a sufficiency of bullion [*].

Such is the process, ungracious indeed but ultimately salutary, which proves a corrective of the excess of paper-money in a mixed currency. As long as the issuers of paper-money are liable to pay in cash, the operation of this corrective will be irresistible; and the Bank will find it necessary to terminate a losing contest by contracting their issues till they have raised their paper to the value of coin:—but, if they be relieved from the obligation of cash-payments, the antidote is divested of its power, and the public is exposed to suffer all the evils of a protracted irregularity in its money-system.

Computed Exchange. Having thus explained the nature of the *real* as well as of the *nominal* exchange, it remains that we say a few words on what is called the *computed* exchange. By this term is meant nothing else than the current rate of exchange, as it is quoted by and received among merchants. It may either be stationary for a considerable time, or it may vary every post-day. Being the actual rate of exchange, it may be termed by the contemplative inquirer "the result, for the time, of the several circumstances which affect both the real and the nominal exchange:" but the man of business knows little or nothing either of these distinctions or of the causes which constitute them. The terms *real*, *nominal*, and *computed* exchange sound strangely to his ears; and he is apt to consign them, with some degree of impatience, to those whom he regards as theorists. He troubles himself equally little about the par of exchange; all that he asks or considers is its current rate, howsoever produced. Accordingly, the meaning of computed exchange will be most intelligible to the man of business if termed the *current* exchange; and to the man out of business, if called the *apparent* exchange.

Effects of depreciation of currency. It has not occurred to us, in the course of our critical labours, to meet with a satisfactory explanation of the particular manner in which paper, not convertible into cash, becomes subject to progressive depreciation; or, in other words, produces an artificial rise in the price of commodities. We regret that Mr. Blake has not exerted his analyzing powers more closely on this intricate inquiry. All that he has told us amounts briefly to this, that it being the interest of men in trade to borrow as much as they can obtain, and that of the Bank to lend as much as it can with safety, an excess from the effect of these co-operating causes can scarcely

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[*] See the review of Sir John Sinclair, already cited.

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fail to arise, in the absence of the legitimate check. The goodness of the bill offered for discount is (as we remarked in a preceding Number) a very sufficient reason for making an advance to the individual applicant, but a very *in*sufficient cause for making an addition to the mass of our currency; — and when, by continuing to act on this seducing rule, an over-issue has actually taken place, the Bank, since the suspension-act, has neither proper means of perceiving the evil, nor an adequate stimulant to redress it. Mr. Blake considers (and we are, in a great degree, disposed to agree with him) that the most serious mischief of the suspension-act has been effected in the over-issue of country-banks: the managers of which, being personally interested in the increase of their issues, are likely to make a less moderate use of their credit than a body of gentlemen who, like the Directors of the Bank of England, are properly agents in the affairs of others. The latter have recently lost, indeed, a portion of their respectability by the evasive tendency of a part of their evidence before the Bullion-Committee, as well as by the presumption of their legal organ: but, while the public will apply merited animadversion to such conduct, we ought to keep in mind that it seems to arise more from an *esprit de corps* than from the suggestions of private interest; the Directors having in general much more of their property vested in commercial undertakings than in bank-stock.

Mr. Blake's pamphlet becomes more interesting when he proceeds to treat of the pernicious effects of a depreciation of currency on the foreign expenditure of government; effects the more to be regretted, because the state of the nominal exchange may always be made subject to controul. A fall in the nominal exchange is a more serious concern to government than to an individual merchant; since the latter may recover in one way what he has lost in another, but to government the loss is absolute. Its foreign expenditure being payable in foreign currency, government must remit a sum of home-currency equal both to the foreign sum and to the amount of the depreciation. If the depreciation be ten per cent., the million expended abroad must be paid by remitting from England eleven hundred thousand pounds. Whatever be the method adopted to effect this remittance, whether by having bills drawn on the Treasury from abroad, by sending out bullion, or by buying and sending out mercantile bills, the loss is unavoidable. Bullion, like all other commodities, must have risen ten per cent.; and the bills, whether here or abroad, must cost government the same premium. — At home, likewise, the fall of money is productive of a similar though less absolute increase of expence. The only way in which government obtains a return is by the augmentation of that portion of the taxes which is levied on property in the ratio of its value. These in course become productive of a larger sum, in proportion as money falls and commodities rise: but they do not constitute a great part of our revenue, and their increase is materially outweighed by the more general increase of government expenditure.

Of the amount of our foreign expenditure, in late years, no return had been made at the time when Mr. Blake wrote: but he regarded the annual excess of our exports to the Continent above our imports as an approximation to it; that is, the balance which most of our countrymen have, like Lord Sheffield, been pleasing themselves with reckoning as clear gain, is considered by the present rigid investigator as nothing better than a provision for the payment of our debts. This negative view of the matter is confirmed by the documents in the Appendix to the Bullion-Report, as well as by others that are cited in a late publication (Bosanquet's Practical Observations) which will soon engage our attention. Mr. Blake argues the point very coolly, and seems scarcely aware how much it will cost the public to adopt his opinion; an opinion implying a sacrifice of our favourite notion of a balance of trade; and a notion which has not only been the subject of sincere belief, but of public boast, by our statesmen from time immemorial to Mr. Perceval downwards. This idea, indeed, has something in it so comfortable that it has gained universal currency; for every nation, that can read and write, is firmly persuaded that it extracts a yearly sum from its neighbours by means of the balance of trade. Would we, however, only look around among ourselves, and observe how the different counties of England, by trading together, find it possible to advance in wealth without subtracting from the property of each other, it would require no painful exercise of the mind to apply the analogy to a mercantile commonwealth of separate states. We might next carry our reflecting powers a little farther, and discover that the effect of trade is to increase the produce of the land and labour of a country; an increase demonstrated (among other things) by augmented fertility and population, both of which, we should think, are substantial additions to national power, yet not of a nature that requires to be gained in the shape of a balance from our neighbours. Let us next consider that all commerce is, directly or indirectly, an exchange of equivalents; and we shall then not be long in taking up the opinion that two countries, trading together, have more reason to expect an even account than a balance. All this pre-meditation is requisite to bring our minds to a fit state for the ungracious discovery that the annual millions, which we have long flattered ourselves with transferring from the pockets of our neighbours to our own, are so far from forming a receipt that they represent the amount which we have been successively sending abroad to discharge our debts, particularly the foreign expenditure of government.

We have now brought our observations on this subject to a close, and have filled up a sketch which, being similar in arrangement, and, in a considerable degree, in argument to that of Mr. Blake, may serve to give our readers an idea of the nature of his publication. In taking leave of this intelligent writer, we cannot help expressing a wish to see the other departments of the Bullion-question undergo an analyzing process from his hands. The Report and Appendix of the Bullion-Committee are, in some respects, to be considered rather as being a storehouse of materials than as a definitive discussion of the subject. Much yet remains to be done, to render the inquiry attractive to the public; and a pamphlet might succeed in rousing the dormant attention of many who know, from some experience, that the pages of a Committee-Report are not "pages of amenity." A re-consideration of the present state of exchange would probably lead Mr. Blake to ascribe its origin less to over-issue of paper, and more to mercantile causes, than he has yet done; and perhaps to alter, in a similar way, the course of his reasoning (p. 28. et seq.) on the price of bullion in 1795.

We must not conclude this article without noticing an error of some consequence, into which we are rather surprized that a writer of Mr. Blake's penetration should have fallen. In treating (p. 106.) of the ruinous effects of a depreciation of currency to the public creditor, the officer, and the annuitant of every description, Mr.B. adds that to the merchant it is of no consequence whatever, his rate of profits keeping pace with the fall of money. This is true in some degree, as to income, but there is another thing still dearer to the merchant than income, we mean *capital.* Mercantile capital, being chiefly vested in the shape of money, is exposed in a great measure to the pressure of depreciation. This fact, we are aware, has escaped the attention of the majority of persons engaged in trade, as much as it has escaped Mr. Blake; and no wonder, since the frequent changes occurring in the career of a mercantile adventurer conceal almost always from others, and generally from himself, the effects of this latent malady. Its silent and gradual progress is unnoticed in the hurry of speculation, in the rumour of rapid gains, and in the more certain intelligence of disappointments: but whoever has deliberately observed the condition of our long established merchants (and it is their condition

tion that affords the best criterion of the state of trade at large,) will find that, notwithstanding all their industry, the *real* increase of their capital has been materially retarded by the unfortunate depreciation of money during the last eighteen years.

Art. II. *Memoirs of William Paley, D.D.* By George Wilson Meadley. Second Edition, corrected and enlarged. To which is added an Appendix. 8vo. pp. 408. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cradock, &c. 1810.

It is a remark often repeated, and as often wanting repetition, that biography is apt to be more communicative than judicious. The desire of telling *all* carries the memorialist too far, since it is by no means necessary that all should be told. When we consider the effect of example, we lament that it should be recorded of such a man as Dr. Paley, that he once said that "he could not afford to keep a conscience." Though this remark was no doubt played off in a jocular way, it makes a discovery of no pleasant kind, and will probably be quoted in future by persons who are inclined to sacrifice principle to interest: in which case, the preservation of such a saying is as likely to do harm, as the best part of Dr. Paley's writings to do good. Mr. Meadley cannot explain away the impression which it is calculated to make; it will pursue the reader through all the narrative of his hero's numerous preferments; and it will impress the infidel with a persuasion that Dr. Paley wrote more from the head than the heart, and was restrained from yielding to the full bent of his convictions by a regard to what *he could afford.* In one or two other instances, it might have been as well if the MS. had been blotted; though in general the work is executed in a manner which is creditable to the biographer, and which, we are inclined to believe, affords a fair portrait of the subject of it.

Still, however, to those individuals who are entering on the same career, a sketch of Dr. Paley's life may operate as a powerful stimulus, and serve to point out the prudential line of conduct; for though it is a source of regret to the biographer that the talents and useful labours of his friend were not rewarded with episcopal honours, it surely must be matter of some encouragement to students of ability in our universities, to know that a man who was the son of a master of a free grammar school, and entered his college as a sizar, had his literary exertions rewarded by a series of valuable preferments, and died 'a rector, a prebendary, and a sub-dean,' with an income from the church exceeding 2000l. a year.

William Paley was born in July 1743 at Peterborough. His father, who kept the school at Giggleswick, superintended his boyhood, which was marked by bodily inactivity and mental exertion. He was sent in 1758 to Cambridge, and was admitted a sizar at Christ's college. In 1759 he became a resident member, and in 1760 was elected a scholar on the foundation of his college. Though not altogether inattentive to his improvement, he was not regularly studious; and though not guilty of vicious excesses, nor indifferent to the propriety of moral conduct, he loved society and conviviality more than his books. His biographer relates an anecdote, on the evidence of Paley himself, which exactly delineates his situation at that time, and records the singular circumstance that roused him to a happy exertion, without which he would have been lost to himself and the world:

"I spent the first two years of my undergraduateship happily but unprofitably. I was constantly in society, where we were not immoral, but idle and rather expensive. At the commencement of my third year, however, after having left the usual party at rather a late hour in the evening, I was awakened at five in the morning by one of my companions, who stood at my bed-side, and said — "Paley, I have been thinking what a d——'d fool you are. I could do nothing, probably, were I to try, and can afford the life I lead: you could do every thing, and cannot afford it. I have had no sleep during the whole night on account of these reflections, and am now come solemnly to inform you, that if you persist in your indolence, I must renounce your society."

"I was so struck," Mr. Paley continued, "with the visit and the visitor, that I lay in bed great part of the day, and formed my plan. I ordered my bed-maker to prepare my fire every evening, in order that it might be lighted by myself. I arose at five, read during the whole of the day, except such hours as chapel and hall required, allotting to each portion of time its peculiar branch of study; and just before the closing of the gates, (nine o'clock,) I went to a neighbouring coffee-house, where I constantly regaled upon a mutton chop and a dose of milk punch. And thus, on taking my bachelor's degree, I became senior wrangler."

Having broken through the temptations which so often ensnare students at the University, his progress was rapid: he graduated with reputation; and soon afterward he became a lecturer. Like some other great men, he for a short time was engaged in the drudgery of a private school, being an assistant in an academy at Greenwich; a situation of which the vicinity to the metropolis afforded him an opportunity of knowing something of the world. In 1765, the University of Cambridge having proposed for the subject of a Latin prize-essay, "The relative moral value of the Stoic and Epicurean philosophy," *Utrum civitati perniciosior sit Epicuri aut Zenonis philosophia?* he embarked as a candidate; and his Dissertation, in which he awarded the preference to Zeno, obtained the prize, notwithstanding the objections which were made to it in consequence of its being accompanied by long notes *in English.* In 1766, he was elected a fellow of Christ's college, and took priest's orders in 1767. In 1771, he was appointed one of the Whitehall preachers. As a college-tutor he obtained pre-eminent reputation, and the lectures which he delivered on this occasion were the foundation of some of those works which he afterward published. About the year 1772, he became acquainted with the American General Lee, who has been supposed to have written the letters of *Junius*; with Mr. Law, (now Lord Ellenborough) third son of the Bishop of Carlisle; and with Dr. Jebb.

When at this period the controversy occurred on the propriety of requiring a subscription to the 39 articles, Paley, though attached by sentiment as well as by friendship to the reforming party, declined to sign the petition presented to Parliament; and it was on this occasion that he jocularly alleged, in excuse for his refusal, that "he could not afford to keep a conscience." His biographer makes the following remarks, in order to break the force of those strictures which such a declaration from the mouth of a clergyman would naturally excite:

> 'For this apology, taken in the gross and obvious meaning of the terms, no reprobation can be too severe; and such words, falling in any sense from a man of Mr. Paley's weight and authority, are calculated to do great mischief among feeble and unreflecting persons. Yet this, like many other expressions which he uttered with his constitutional vivacity, should by no means be too rigidly interpreted, as implying a decided resolution to make self-interest the sole criterion of his conduct.
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> 'It is possible, no doubt, that, when he considered the power and influence of the adverse party, and the wonted indifference of the many, in all questions of principle and enlightened reasoning, he despaired of success; and thence prudently declined engaging in a measure, which, without procuring the slightest relief to the petitioners, might have narrowed his own sphere of present usefulness, and thwarted all his prospects of future advancement in life. But it is still more likely that, expecting the question would be renewed with greater weight and authority on some future occasion, he reserved with that view his exertions in the cause; for he has been often heard to confess,—"I know that I am a coward in this business, but I will come in with the next wave, and that will be a larger."

Mr. Meadley has here ingeniously laboured to get Paley *out of a scrape*, into which the dæmon of wit betrayed him: but will he succeed with the penetrating reader? In the sprightliness of the remark, Dr. Paley forgot that it made too great a discovery, and unlocked the secret of his soul. He comforted himself with hoping that, in future, he should be able more completely to satisfy his own mind: but we do not find in the sequel that he was ever less 'a coward' in divulging his sentiments on controverted points of theology. His biographer (p. 235.) informs us that 'the minutiæ of Dr. Paley's creed have never been distinctly avowed, and the charge of heterodoxy, so generally attached to his theological tenets, is supported by the omissions, rather than the assertions of his works.' In this respect he certainly manifested great prudence. As in politics, (see p. 265, 6.) he avoided 'to start any plans of reform, and endeavoured to make the best of things in their present state,' so in religion he steered clear of the speculative points of doctrine, and confined himself to the provinces of practical religion and natural theology, to morality, and the evidences of Christianity. Mr.M. would persuade us that the Doctor was impeded in his progress to the mitre 'by the freedom of his manner in the story of the pigeons*; by his liberal construction of the oath of allegiance†; by his assertion that *government may be too secure*‡; by his judicious limitations of the duty of civil obedience§; by his argument that the obligation of subjects and sovereigns is reciprocal‖; by his just and striking remark, that the divine right of *kings* is like the divine right of *constables*¶; and still more by his enlightened views of religious establishments and toleration**.' Had he, however, been known to have been orthodox, these objections would have been feathers in the scale. "They will never make me a Bishop," said Paley himself; and he had good reason for the assertion.

Having obtained the rectory of Musgrave in Westmorland, to which he was inducted May 26, 1775, Dr. Paley retired from college-life into the diocese of Carlisle; and having at-

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'* Mor. and Pol. Phil. b. iii. pt. i. c. 1.

'† Idem, b. iii. pt. i. c. 18.

'‡ Idem, 4to. p.411; 8vo. vol.ii. p.138.

'§ Idem, 4to, p.424; 8vo. vol.ii. p.154.

'‖ Idem, 4to. p 434; 8vo. vol.ii. p.169.

'¶ Idem, 4to. p. 440. "The divine right of *Kings* is, like the divine right of *Constables*, the law of the land, or even actual and quiet possession of their office; a right, ratified, we humbly presume, by the divine approbation, so long as obedience to their authority appears to be necessary or conducive to the common welfare." This remark is somewhat differently worded in the later editions. 8vo. vol. ii. p. 178.

'** Idem. b.vi. chap. 10.'

tached himself to the handsome Miss Hewitt of Carlisle, he was married to that lady in June 1776. At Musgrave, he is reported to have passed some of the happiest days of his life. This village, situated on the banks of the river Eden, afforded him an opportunity of indulging in his favourite amusement of angling; and one of his sayings relative to trouling for pike is recorded: but it does not appear that this sport interrupted his "fishing for men," since in the same year he was inducted to the vicarage of Dalston; on the 10th of September 1777, on resigning the living of Musgrave, he was instituted to the valuable rectory of Appleby; and in 1780 he became a prebendary, and in 1782 archdeacon of Carlisle. In the progress of his advancement to this eminence in the church, he was known as a writer only by the publication of sermons and other pamphlets of the minor kind: but from this period he became more distinguished. First appeared his *Moral and Political Philosophy* *, in 1785. This is an excellent work, notwithstanding a few objectionable passages, and may be considered as a liberal book, which, instead of teaching the duties hyperbolically, inculcates and approves much compromise with convenience, expediency, and usage. He next printed in 1790 his *Horæ Paulinæ*, the best of his productions; in which the genuineness of Paul's epistles is established by means of ably tracing the undesigned coincidence between his allusions and his adventures recorded in the Acts of the Apostles. In 1794 Dr. P. gave to the world his *Evidences of Christianity*; an useful book, but of less originality:—in 1802, his *Natural Theology*, which discusses the argument from design, and which (as the biographer remarks) 'may be safely recommended, as altogether the very best manual of Theism hitherto produced;'—and lastly appeared a *posthumous volume of Sermons*. With his literary reputation, honour and riches grew: he obtained the vicarages of Addingham and Stanwix, was made subdean of Lincoln, took the degree of D. D., and was inducted in 1795 to the lucrative rectory of Bishop-Wearmouth, worth 1200l. per annum. In this year he married a second wife; and fortune seems to have been liberal of her favours: but we may say, "*Quicquid tibi prodest—morituro?*" He did not enjoy his beautiful rectory, with its park, &c. more than ten years. In 1800 he was attacked by a violent *nephralgic* complaint, accompanied with a species of *melæna*; warm bathing at Buxton was tried in vain; and his latter years were embittered with frequent sufferings, which he bore with fortitude, tranquilly breathing his last, aged 62, on the 25th of May 1805.

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* Paley owns that here he borrowed much from the desultory but ingenious treatise by Mr. A. Tucker, intitled, *The Light of Nature pursued.*

The character of Dr. Paley as a man and as a divine is fully displayed by Mr. Meadley, who does justice to his clear and comprehensive intellect, to his original and enlightened reflections on the transactions of human life, to his liberal and catholic spirit, and to his attractive social qualities. We shall take notice, in our *Catalogue* for this month, of a selection from Dr. Paley's works, by Mr. Hamilton Reid, which will give occasion for a few additional remarks on them and on himself; at present, we add only that the Appendix to the Memoirs before us contains, among other papers, extracts from Dr. P.'s College-lectures, which justify the encomiums bestowed on him by his pupils; and that a well executed portrait is prefixed to the volume.

Art. III. *Lectures on the Four Last Books of the Pentateuch*, designed to shew the Divine Origin of the Jewish Religion, chiefly from internal Evidence. In three Parts: I. The Authenticity and Truth of the History; II. The theological, moral, and political Principles of the Jewish Law; III. A Review of Objections. Delivered in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, at the Lecture established by the Provost and Senior Fellows, under the Will of Mrs. Anne Donnelan. By the Rev. Richard Graves, D.D. M.R.I.A. Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, &c. Two Vols. 8vo. about 500 pp. in each Volume. 16s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

A defence of Revelation necessarily includes a defence of the dispensations recorded in the Old Testament, and particularly of the Divine origin of the Jewish religion. The Pentateuch, as containing the history of the establishment of this religion, as well as of the moral and political system connected with it, in an eminent degree invites the study of every theologian who is anxious to acquire a correct view of those antient writings to which the authors of the N. T. refer, and of that system on which the gospel scheme is erected. Of all the monuments of antiquity, the Pentateuch is the most curious; and it is of great moment to obtain correct notions of it, both as a literary composition and as a document to which Jews and Christians equally appeal. As a preliminary to its adduction in evidence on any point of controversy, it appears to us absolutely necessary to consider its nature in a literary view, setting aside, for the present, the question of its inspiration: its value as a Hebrew classic work being completely ascertained, the state of its text settled, and the precise import of its phraseology explained, we shall enter well prepared on an examination of its contents : but, unless sound, judicious, and unfettered criticism leads the way, the Pentateuch will be read with little profit, and we shall be encumbered with difficulties in its defence which do not necessarily arise out of the subject. Every thing conspires to awaken our vigilance and perspicacity in this inquiry : the antiquity of the five books ascribed to Moses the Jewish Legislator, the history of the text, the alterations which it has received under the various fortunes of the Jews, its manifest and palpable interpolations, and its oriental style, are all circumstances which the modern theologian ought to keep in remembrance.

That superstitious reverence which the Jew feels for the Pentateuch, the able Christian critic will lay aside. Its author having no where advanced a claim to inspiration, we need not embarrass ourselves with this assumption ; and, since the authenticity of the leading facts respecting the Theocracy is not affected by certain errors and interpolations in the narrative, it is not judicious to take too high ground in contending for the purity of the present text. Supposing Moses to have been the original writer, he could not have been the author of every part of the history as it now stands ; the last chapter of Deuteronomy, for instance, which relates the death of that Lawgiver, could not have proceeded from his pen ; and the attentive reader will perceive other portions of the Pentateuch, which must have been composed subsequently to the period of Moses. The late Dr. Geddes contended that the whole was written in Canaan by some anonymous author, who is everywhere addicted to the marvelous, and who generally clothes his narrative in the garb of poetic imagery. As to the poetic imagery, we conceive it to be nothing more than the high colouring which is common to all Eastern compositions, and which will never mislead the learned commentator ;—as to the objection of its abounding with the marvelous, we may observe that, though it is impossible to exclude miracles without denying the divine origin of the Jewish Law, more marvels appear on the present face of the narrative than ought to be allowed : but whatever may be the glosses and interpolations which have crept into the text, and which were evidently added after the Jews were in possession of the land of Canaan, we cannot think that Geddes was justified in maintaining that the whole was composed in the promised land. He would probably, however, have been not far from the truth in saying (*Gallicè*) that the Pentateuch was *redacted* in Palestine ; and we think that this circumstance is of some importance towards explaining the actual state of the text, and removing difficulties which in our

distinct kingdoms, and their oppression un
captivity, not to mention other circumstanc
the most powerful changes, we may fairly
sacred books have felt the effects of these re
very face of the record, as the lawyers wou
sured that this must have been the case.
volumes now before us, admits the fact in
and we wish that he had admitted it in more.
that the paragraph in Gen. xxxvi. 31. &c. must
after the establishment of a king in Israel ; a
book of Genesis (a book with which Dr. G
meddle,) whole passages were introduced into
probably even after the reign of Solomon, s
critic is not to be severely reprobated for co
Pentateuch has not been preserved in its in
time of Moses. To speak in the language of
editions of the Pentateuch might have been
Ezra, and by some others, in the Augustan
literature, the reign of Solomon ; at which p
tution of modern for antient names was proba
passages were added to adapt them to existin
We do not wish to see this principle carrie
ought to be made of it to a certain extent, es
honour of the Divine Being, and a compariso
the narrative with another, require it. We a
it is much preferable for the modern defende
consider the divine order for the absolute ext
Canaanites, root and branch, as an interpolati
history in order to justify the cruelties of the
employ laboured arguments to

Deut. xvii. 14. &c. we find that express provision had been made for the appointment of a king over them. Now if the decrees of the Theocracy under Moses had provided for and allowed the establishment of the royal authority over the tribes of Israel, how could Samuel call their choice of a king the rejection of God? Is it not more rational to conclude that this passage in Deuteronomy, alluding to the future appointment of regal governors, was introduced into the editions of the Pentateuch which were made in the reign of Solomon? That considerable liberty was taken with the Mosaic records, at this period, may be inferred also from the new edition of the fourth commandment, Deuteronomy, v. 12—15. Here a very different reason is assigned for the observance of the seventh day as a sabbath, from that which is given at the first publication of the Decalogue. (Exodus xx. 11.) Some theologues have supposed that in the enlightened age of Solomon it was judged proper, in the revision of the law, to omit the shining of Moses's face on his return from the mount, together with all reference to the anthropomorphic idea of the repose of the Deity after the labour of six days; instead, therefore, of adding, as the motive for keeping holy the sabbath, the circumstance of God's rest on the seventh day, the editor of the Decalogue in Deuteronomy subjoins a reason which does not appear in Exodus, viz. "that thy man-servant and thy maid-servant may rest as well as thou; and remember that thou wast a servant in the land of Egypt, and that the Lord thy God brought thee out thence, through a mighty hand, and by a stretched out arm: therefore the Lord thy God commanded thee to keep the sabbath." Should it be said that both of these reasons were assigned at first, it is sufficient to reply that this assertion is contradicted by the evidence. The fact is that one motive is urged at the original promulgation of the law, and a very different motive at its revision; and the reader is left to speculate on the cause of this variation.

We have briefly adverted to these circumstances, (and we could mention others,) in order to shew that a critical review of the Pentateuch ought to precede a defence of its authenticity. Dr. Graves, though he has laboured the point, has not exactly followed the line which we should have prescribed; and though we are ready to do full justice to his learning and ingenuity, we must candidly own that he has not always obviated difficulties to our satisfaction. He throughout endeavours to demonstrate much more than the necessity of the case requires; and he seems to forget that, in addressing infidels, he who aims at too much incurs the risque of effecting nothing.

The credibility of the divine mission of Moses and the divine origin of the Jewish law does not necessarily imply the inspiration of the historian; and if we endeavour to ascertain the authenticity of the leading facts recorded in the Pentateuch, on the basis of internal evidence, it is preferable, especially in a controversy with infidels, to examine the documents detached from this question. Should it be urged that without inspiration the historian could not have recorded the account of the creation, we shall reply that then the lecturer should have included an examination of the book of Genesis in his plan. Indeed on this point Dr. G. modestly confesses his inability: but it is an omission in the process which enfeebles the result. In undertaking, however, to lecture on the last four books of the Pentateuch, Dr. Graves embraces a very wide range; and as far as the general authenticity of the narrative is concerned, many of his arguments have weight, though all of them are not alike conclusive. At the end of the first part, he thus recapitulates the substance of his reasoning:

'The relation of the Mosaic miracles is found in a work which contains the Religion and Laws of a numerous and not uncivilized nation; and which it has been shewn they have ALWAYS RECEIVED as written by their legislator himself, at the time the facts took place, and as the only authentic code of their Religion and their Laws, as well as the only sure record of their history, and the authority fixing the tenure on which private property was held, and the regulations affecting it established. Now I think I may venture to assert, that there occurs not in the history of mankind a single instance of any nation being so grossly imposed upon, as universally to receive a forged book of Laws, and submit to its authority not only as genuine but divine; especially when the tenor of these Laws is such, (as I endeavour to prove,) that no period can be assigned in the history of the nation, when their introduction would not have been likely to excite great opposition; and that no body of men, nay, no individual can be pointed out, whose interest it was to form such a fabrication, or gain it that universal credit it certainly acquired, with the divided subjects of the kings of Judah and Israel, and the hostile tribes of the Jews and the Samaritans.

'To give further satisfaction on this important point, and to evince that the Pentateuch was not a compilation of Laws which were indeed acknowledged, but which were combined with a fictitious history, and this implicitly received from the influence of national vanity, or party and personal interest; I have examined the INTERNAL STRUCTURE of the Pentateuch, and from this (the most unerring criterion whenever it can be applied) I endeavoured to evince, that the facts it relates, so far at least as they *were not miraculous*, were undoubtedly true; and that the relation it delivers may be depended on, as exact and faithful even in the most minute particulars: because it is evidently written with the most perfect artlessness and simplicity; with such particularity of time and place, and person and circumstance, as none but an eye-witness can be reasonably supposed to have preserved; and with such strict impartiality, as leaves no room to doubt that it delivers every circumstance without any attempt to disguise or alter it. The relation may therefore be depended on, as faithfully drawn up by SOME EYE-WITNESS.

' In the *third* Lecture I went further, and endeavoured to prove, that as the Pentateuch had been shewn to be the relation of SOME EYE-WITNESS TO THE FACTS; so, also, it carried internal evidence, that this eye-witness was NO OTHER THAN MOSES HIMSELF, and that it was written with the strongest regard to truth: because on comparing the different books of it together, an exact agreement appeared in the different parts of the narrative, as well with each other, as with the different situations in which Moses its supposed author is placed, and the different views and feelings which would naturally arise from them; and this, discovering itself in COINCIDENCES SO MINUTE, SO LATENT, SO INDIRECT AND EVIDENTLY UNDESIGNED, that nothing could have produced them but reality and truth, influencing the mind, and directing the pen of the legislator.

' Further, least it should be imagined the common facts were indeed *related by* Moses himself, but that the miracles may have been afterwards interpolated by some different and later hand, I endeavoured to prove in the *fourth* Lecture, that the same exact suitableness of the sentiments and language of Moses to the situations in which he was placed, the same NATURAL AND UNDESIGNED COINCIDENCES between the address to the people in Deuteronomy, and the direct narrative in the preceding books, which had been observed *as to the common facts*, were equally apparent in the manner in which the *miracles were related* and alluded to; and that the whole series of facts, common and miraculous, are blended together in one uniform and consistent narrative; all related by the same writer, and with equal artlessness, fidelity, and precision, and equal regard to nature and truth.

' Having thus far pointed out the general character of the Pentateuch, having evinced that its common facts are beyond all doubt true, as well as inseparably connected with, and DEPENDENT ON THE MIRACULOUS; and shewn, that the relation of all the facts, both common and miraculous, is evidently the work of an eye-witness, bearing with it the strongest internal character of simplicity, impartiality, and truth; also, that it is next to a certainty, that this eye-witness could be no other than Moses himself. Having thus prepared the way, I have in *this Lecture* considered the *particular detail of the miracles* recorded in the Pentateuch, and the proofs on which they depend; and it has I trust appeared, that the four (I may venture to call them) infallible marks of truth, which the acute mind of the celebrated Leslie has pointed out, clearly apply to them; that they were in the *first place* wrought most publicly; two nations affected by them, and above two millions of souls for forty years together witnessing them. *Next*, that they were of such a nature, that men's senses could not be mistaken, either as to the existence of the facts, or their reason deluded in

mencing at the very time of their existence,
ruptedly continued.

'In a word, it has I trust appeared, that
foundation of the entire frame of the Heb
clearly and indelibly recorded in all their
expressly commemorated in the three great
ritual, and recognized as the principles on
regulations of property were founded; a poi
because however cold and indifferent nations s
religion, they never become careless as to p
we have observed in the Hebrew laws and ritual
the religion and government, of so close a
of so singular a kind, as evidently presuppos
peculiar Providence; an expectation which
nothing but the certainty of the Mosaic mira
fore forms the strongest proof of their reality,
tic record of their existence. From all this w
ranted in concluding, that the MIRACLES
JEWISH LAWGIVER WERE UNDOUBTEDLY R
HIS MISSION UNDOUBTEDLY DIVINE.'

Among the miracles performed in beha
the wilderness, Dr. Graves reckons the
raiment from waxing old for the space o
authority of Deut. viii. 4.: but here, in our
for the existence of a miracle where no mi
recorded, and none was necessary. We p
version Geddes's translation of the passag
these forty years worn tattered clothes," &c.
real sense meant to

Mulieres etiam adeo peritæ erunt artis textoriæ. (Exod. xxxv. 25.) *Hinc non est opus, ut cum Judæorum magistris, accipiomus miraculo esse factum, ut Israelitarum vestes non solum non usu adtritæ essent, sed præterea etiam cum corpore eorum crescerent. Bene hanc ineptam et ridiculam opinionem ridet Hermannus Von-der-hardt; qui ipse et rectam illam a nobis allatam interpretationem proposuit in Ephemeridibus Philologicis Discurs.* xii. *et in Epistolis annexis*, p. 340." &c.

This representation is so correct, that we are surprised that any annotator should attempt to call in the aid of a miracle, when the circumstances of the people did not demand it. They had flocks and herds; and their fleeces, if not employed in the manufacture of cloths, must have been thrown away: but, as the Israelites had manufacturers among them, these raw materials were certainly worked up. The mistake seems to have arisen from an erroneous idea of the nature of the country which the Israelites occupied, previously to their crossing the Jordan. It is called the wilderness comparatively, not absolutely: for it afforded pasturage for the large flocks which belonged to the tribes. From Deut. xvi. 9. we find that they grew corn; and having possessed themselves of the territories of Sihon and Og, they were not without a productive country before they enjoyed the fertility of Canaan. This fact will incline us to believe that, from the account given of the manna, we are not to conclude that this substance was the sole food of the Israelites, during their forty years of sojourning in what is called the wilderness.

When Dr. Graves proceeds to the second part, which treats of the theology of the Jewish law, he occupies stronger ground than when he discusses the authenticity of the history; for having laid too much stress on the credulity and superstitious reverence of the Jews (not unlike that of the Hindoos) for their sacred writings, he pushes their evidence too far: but he reluctantly admits, in the Appendix, that the present Pentateuch is not exactly that composition which the original journals of Moses must have formed. The argument, however, in favour of the divine origin of the Jewish economy, is not paralized by allowing that the Pentateuch has shared the fate of other most antient records. Every thing material to the striking and distinguishing phænomena of the religion of the Jews has been preserved; and by a comparison of its pure and sublime theology with the immoral and idolatrous systems of all surrounding nations, it is justified in claiming a divine source. After having represented the correct theism and the high-toned morality which distinguish the Mosaic law, and adverted to the state of the world, and even of the Jewish tribes, when it was promulgated, Dr. G. thus rounds his argument:

'Such was the theology of the Jewish religion, at a period when the whole world was deeply infected with idolatry; when all knowledge of the one true God, all reverence for his sacred name, all reliance on his providence, all obedience to his Laws, were nearly banished from the earth, when the severest chastisements had been tried in vain; when no hope of reformation appeared from the refinements of civilization, or the researches of philosophy; for the most civilized and enlightened nations adopted with the greatest greediness and disseminated with the greatest activity, the absurdities, impieties, and pollutions of idolatry. Then was the Jewish Law promulgated to a nation who, to mere human judgment, might have appeared incapable of inventing or receiving such a high degree of intellectual or moral improvement; for they had been long enslaved to the Egyptians, the authors and supporters of the grossest idolatry; they had been weighed down by the severest bondage, perpetually harassed by the most incessant manual labours; for "the Egyptians made their lives bitter with hard bondage, in mortar and in brick, and in all manner of service in the field." At this time, and in this nation, was the Mosaic Law promulgated, teaching the great principles of true religion, the self-existence, the unity, the perfections and the providence, of the one great Jehovah; reprobating all false gods, all image worship, all the absurdities and profanations of idolatry. At this time, and in this nation, was a system of government framed, which had for its basis the reception of and steady adherence to this system of true religion; and establishing many regulations, which would be in the highest degree irrational, and could never hope to be received, except from a general and thorough reliance on the superintendance of divine Providence, controuling the course of nature, and directing every event; so as to proportion the prosperity of the Hebrew people, according to their obedience to that Law which they received as divine.

'In the mode in which the doctrines of their religion were promulgated, we find a minute attention to the moral and intellectual character of the nation for whom it was designed, and the most admirable precautions used, to impress attention and command obedience, if the authority of the Lawgiver was in reality divine; but precautions of such a nature, as would render his whole scheme abortive, and expose it to derision and contempt, if he had contrived it only by human artifice, and relied on nothing but human aid.

'Here then I rest the first presumptive argument for the divine original of the Jewish scheme; and I contend, that the promulgation of such a system of theology, at such a period, and to such a people so connected with the form of its government, and adopting such extraordinary regulations and precautions, cannot be satisfactorily accounted for, without allowing the truth of the Mosaic history, the deliverance of Israel by supernatural aid, and the establishment of their religion and government by divine authority.'

We pass over the lecture on the political principles of the Jewish law, and proceed to the third part, which is wholly occupied with a review of objections; at the head of which stands the severe treatment of the Canaanites by the Jews. Here the Lecturer maintains that 'in this event divine Providence acted in a manner strictly analogous to the general course of that moral government, constantly exercised in the world; with this only difference, that the same measures of divine administration, which in other cases are carried into effect by the secret influence, and, as it were, tacit permission of the supreme moral Governor, were here executed by his avowed interposition and immediate authority.' He also contends, 'that with regard to the Canaanites the Jews stood exactly in the relation of ministers of justice;' and he talks of the severity exercised on the wicked Canaanites as the only effectual method of inspiring the Jews with a detestation of all their foul crimes:—but we are not satisfied with any of Dr. Graves's reasoning on this point; and as to the fact, so far were the Jews from being cured of idolatry, and the vices connected with it, by this order for the extirpation, that even in Canaan they were as much prone to idolatry as before their entrance into it. The story also of the Levite and his concubine, at the end of the book of Judges, proves that the Benjamites were not superior in morals to the inhabitants of Sodom.

However heterodox Dr. Geddes's opinion of this subject may be deemed, we think that it is supported by better argumentation than that which is usually holden by our divines. We refer the reader to the Doctor's good-humoured expostulation with the Bishop of Landaff: who, in his "Apology for the Bible," maintained that the utter extirpation of the Canaanites was an order of Jehovah to the Jews. (See Geddes's *Critical Remarks*, subjoined to his translation of the Old Testament, p. 484.) That bold commentator thinks, and we entirely coincide with him in opinion, that the shortest and best way of getting rid of this oppressive difficulty is to suspect that the order, which is supposed to come from Jehovah, for the merciless extermination of the Canaanites, was "the fabrication of some posterior Jew, to justify the cruelties of his nation."—How preferable is this conclusion to the prostitution of logic in order to prove that to which no sound head and good heart can assent! Let not Christian divines think that it is their duty to sacrifice the honour of the Deity, rather than imagine interpolations in the Pentateuch. It grieves us to see sophistry substituted for argument on this question, by such men as Watson and Paley, to whom we are sorry to add the present author.

Dr. Graves next examines the objections against the reality of the Mosaic miracles, derived from the frequent idolatries of the Jews, which, he maintains, did not result from any doubt of the divine source of the Mosaic law: but can this in every instance be roundly asserted? He then discusses the conduct of the Jews under the Judges, the establishment of the kingly government, and the separation of the ten tribes; on the last of which subject it is maintained that the conduct of Jeroboam, in setting up altars in opposition to that of Jerusalem, implied no disbelief of the divine original of the Mosaic law, nor any *rejection of its authority*; and he is said only to have introduced an *innovation*. Surely this is too mild a term. Jeroboam's conduct was direct rebellion against the Theocracy, which allowed of no graven images, and of but one national altar in Israel. Swayed by an obvious principle of policy, he formed for the people of his new government a new religion, in order to alienate by degrees the minds of his subjects from the old establishment at Jerusalem. The case which Dr. Graves mentions at p.169. is not in point:—Christianity, unlike Judaism, has no locality.

The examination of the objection to the Mosaic law, founded on its employing temporal sanctions, brings the author in contact with Warburton; whose reasoning is combated, and especially the prominent doctrine of the Divine Legation that a future state is not revealed in the Old Testament, particularly not in the Pentateuch: but if Warburton has gone into one extreme, Dr. Graves has run into the other; since, if the resurrection of the dead and the actual ascension into heaven were, as he contends, established under the Old Testament, how could *life and immortality* be said *to be brought to light* by the Gospel? Had a future state been clearly revealed in the Pentateuch, our Saviour would not have deduced this doctrine in the way of inference. Elijah's ascent to heaven in a fiery chariot seems to be an orientalism, expressive of his having been destroyed by a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning.

In answer to the objection that Judaism was confined to a single nation, it is very justly remarked that the Jewish scheme was intended to produce, and did produce, a most important and beneficial effect on a great portion of mankind; and that its peculiar institutions, in being singularly adverse to idolatry and preparatory to the introduction to the Gospel, may be regarded as an universal benefit.

To conclude, we must remark that the whole of this subject requires great judgment in the discussion; since objections will naturally arise in inquiring minds, which must be vanquished, not by general declamation and logical refinements, but by a fair examination of the merits of every question, and by the resolute application of the canons of rational criticism.

Art. IV. *Memoirs of the Life of Peter Daniel Huet, Bishop of Avranches*, written by himself; and translated from the original Latin, with copious Notes, biographical and critical, by John Aikin, M. D. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

Our books of biography have rendered the name of Huet, Bishop of Avranches, well known to the English reader; and the catalogues of our good libraries have occasionally presented him the title, *Huetius—Commentarius de rebus ad eum pertinentibus:* but every *mere English* reader may not be aware that this *Huetius* is *Bishop Huet;* and that under this unusual title he gave to the world the memoirs of his own life. We believe that the volumes now on our table first present those memoirs in our language; and it not only affords us pleasure thus to recur to a perusal of them, but we shall hope to gratify those who turn over the pages of the M. R. by an abstract of the learned prelate's *Self Commentary.*

Peter Daniel Huet was born at Caen in Normandy, in 1630, and died in 1721, at the great age of ninety-one. "The love of study," says the Abbé d' Olivet, in his account of the life and writings of Huet, "preceded in him, we will not say his reason, because we do not know the precise instant at which reason commences, but at least his use of speech: — and, when it is considered that Huet lived beyond the age of ninety years; that, from his very tenderest age to the last days of his life, he was intensely addicted to study; that his time was always at his command; that his health was, with little exception, uniformly good; that at his meals, and even at his dressing and undressing, he made his servants read to him; that, to use his own words, (in the Huetiana, p. 2.), neither the fire of youth, nor the demands of business, nor professional occupation, nor company, nor the bustle of the world, could allay, for a single moment, his unconquerable passion for study; — we may safely conclude that Monsieur Huet was, of all men, the one who had studied the most."

He began his course at the time when the erudition of France was on its decline, and the æra of her genius and taste was advancing. That æra he survived; and he lived to see, but not without great indignation,

> ———————— "a sprightlier age,
> Come titt'ring on, and shove him from the stage."—Pope.

This was the age of French *bel esprit* and prettiness; which began with *Fontenelle*, and has continued to our time. Thus the extension of the prelate's career was unusually long: we must look back to a very early period of the literary history of France, to discover a person of any literary celebrity who could not have been seen by Huet; and to a very recent period of it, to discover one by whom Huet could not have been seen. From his memoirs we might therefore reasonably expect much information of the literary history of his country, and in perusing them the reader will not be disappointed: they contain much interesting matter; and the deficiencies of the text are often supplied by the notes.

In the Introduction, the translator presents us with a succinct view of the general state of learning at the time when Huet began his literary labours; and we think that our readers will be pleased with our inserting it at length:

'The brilliant period of letters in Italy, which had restored a kind of classical age in that favoured country, was at an end; but it had produced the effect of diffusing throughout Europe a correct knowledge of the ancient languages, and a taste for pure and elegant composition. Critical learning, in particular, was cultivated with great assiduity and success; and the writings of antiquity were elucidated by all the aids afforded by profound erudition and exercised judgement. Some of the greatest names in the class of critics are to be met with among the scholars who flourished about the commencement of the seventeenth century. Joseph Scaliger, Casaubon, Grotius, Meursius, Gruter, Daniel Heinsius, Ritterhuysius, Barthius, Dousa, Gerard-John Vossius, Salmasius, form a groupe which would confer lustre on any period of philology.

'The Italian literati of the preceding age had for the most part avoided theological controversy, to the subjects of which many of them were in their hearts totally indifferent, whilst its technical language was grating to their classical feelings. But the progress of the Reformation rendered it necessary for the partisans of papal Rome to contend *pro aris et focis* against the fierce attacks of its different enemies. The cardinals Baronius and Bellarmine, one as an ecclesiastical historian, the other as a polemic, stood in the first rank of catholic champions, and were supported by Allatius, Du Perron, Spondanus, and many others, to whose zeal the inexhaustible wealth of the Romish see administered substantial aliment. On the other side, Sarpi stood by himself as a dauntless opposer of papal usurpations, while he acquiesced in the general doctrine of the catholic church. Grotius employed the stores of his extensive learning and powerful understanding in commenting upon the Scriptures, without enlisting under the banners of any particular sect, and gave the fairest example of philological theology. The cause of reformed religion was strenuously pleaded by Duplessis Mornai, and Dumoulin, in France, and by others in different protestant countries; while the controversies among the separatists themselves were carried on with no small vigour by Arminius and Gomarus and their respective partisans, as well as by other leaders of subordinate sects. At the same time, the atheistical writings of Vannini, and the deism of lord Herbert of Cherbury and others, had roused up defenders of religion and revelation upon general grounds; and from all these causes men's minds were at this period earnestly engaged in speculations relative to theology, to which they brought the same resources of learning and argument that have since, though perhaps with improved skill and accuracy, been employed on those topics.

'In abstract philosophy various attacks had been made upon the authority of Aristotle, which for so many ages had reigned paramount in the schools. The revival of Platonism had been attempted by some learned men; others had shown an attachment to the system of the Stoics, especially in morals; and some daring geniuses, as Jordano Bruno and Cardan, had proposed new methods of philosophizing, though with little success: but upon the whole it was evident that the human intellect was no longer disposed to submit to the shackles which had been imposed upon it. Bacon had lately published those great works which were destined to effect a mighty change in the pursuit of knowledge in general, but it does not appear that their influence was immediate.

'In the mean time, natural philosophy, in its several branches, had been greatly advanced by the labours of some men of superior genius. In astronomy, Tycho Brahe, of whom much is said in these Memoirs, had made many valuable discoveries; and though his scheme of the solar system deviated from the simplicity and truth of that before proposed by Copernicus, but which the world was not as yet prepared to receive, yet it contributed to subvert ancient errors. At length Galileo, one of the few names that make an era in the history of mental acquisitions, diffused a bright and unextinguishable light over physical science; and being followed by Torricelli and other eminent disciples, introduced that broad day of knowledge which has since shone upon the world. The sublime geometry of Kepler, applied to investigate the laws which govern the motions of the heavenly bodies, powerfully aided the progress of astronomy, and afforded firm ground for Descartes, and afterwards for Newton, to stand on. The animal economy had also been much elucidated by the sagacious researches of many eminent anatomists; and that fundamental law, the circulation of the blood, had been demonstrated by Harvey a short time before the birth of our author.

'Upon the whole, though the state of human knowledge was, in many particulars, only that of infancy, compared to the maturity it has attained in another century and a half, yet the impulse was given, the mind was put into a right track of pursuit, and industry and genius were no longer in danger of being wasted for want of a direction to proper objects. The art of writing was well understood; and if learning was still infected with pedantry, and taste had not attained its highest degree of refinement, there were not wanting respectable models in almost every species of composition.

'Of the countries to the productions of which a scholar's attention, at the period of Huet's entrance into literary life, would principally be

erudition of
employed in supporting the claims of the Ro
of discussion was watched with the greatest je
scarcely any Italians appear among Huet's a
pondence.

'Holland, in consequence of the care taken
universities with able professors invited from
advantages of its free press, seems at that time
gazine whence the greatest number of valuable p
the chief centre of learned communication throu

'Germany maintained its well-earned reputati
and was abundant in learned men, many of w
driven to the neighbouring countries, especially
of encouragement at home, and through the wid
of the thirty years' war.

'England had formed a flourishing school of
but all its productions in the vernacular tongue
tinent, where its language was as little read as th
Sweden may now be; and what it contributed to
by means of Latin currency was of small acco
too, at that period, civil commotions either ent
minds from learned pursuits, or in great measu
political and theological controversy. Perhaps
except those of Bacon, Camden, Buchanan, Selde
familiar to the scholars of the rest of Europe in the
seventeenth century.

'In France itself Huet would find examples of
in many who had decorated the age of Richelieu,
ductory to that of Louis XIV. The university o
without its illustrious members. In some of the
versities, civil law had been elucidated with great lea
and many members of

of the head-quarters of Calvinism, had imbibed a learned tincture, and had not lost the regularity of manners which usually accompanies a reforming sect. The Jesuits, who had succeeded to the principal share in the instruction of youth, presented, in their college, those incitements and aids to early study which have pre-eminently distinguished the seminaries of their order. Thus, before he was endangered by the allurements and dissipation of a metropolis, he had acquired such an attachment to learning, and such habits of application, that his character was fixed, and the *ruling passion* was implanted which governed his whole future life.'

Huet informs us that his family was noble: but, before he reached his fifth year, he lost both his parents, and he was unfortunate in his guardians. — When he attained his tenth year, he was placed at a college of the Jesuits, and seems to have suffered a severe literary persecution from his idle schoolfellows:

'When my love for letters (says he) had excited the envy of my companions, they did every thing in their power to interrupt me in my studies: my books were stolen, my papers torn, or wetted or greased so as not to bear ink, and my chamber door was barred, that whilst they were at play I might not be lurking in my room with a book, as I was frequently detected in doing. When we were in the country during the autumnal vacation, it was held as a crime to take a book, and they compelled me to pass whole days in playing, hunting, or walking. In order to indulge my own taste, it was my custom to rise with the sun while they were buried in sleep, and either hide myself in the wood, or seek some thick shade which might conceal me from their sight whilst I was reading and studying in quiet. It was their practice, however, to hunt for me among the bushes, and by throwing stones or wet clods, or squirting water through the branches, to drive me out from my hiding-place. But the more my efforts were impeded by the malignity of my fellow-scholars, the more they were urged on by that innate and boundless thirst for learning, which from my birth had so wholly taken possession of my soul, that readily conceding to others the glory of letters, if I might claim a superiority in warm and constant attachment to them, I feel that I have a right openly to challenge that degree of merit.'

His stay among the Jesuits was not very long; and when he returned to his family, he prosecuted his studies with unremitting ardour. In his early youth, he acquired a complete knowlege of the Latin and Greek languages: but he mentions that the difficulties which he found in the history of Thucydides were so great that he laid it aside, till the assistance of Father Petau, the celebrated chronologist, enabled him to conquer them. — He was not so much absorbed by his love of Greek literature as to neglect the Hebrew, but states that he devoted certain hours to that language every day; and that, during the thirty years which preceded the time of his writing his memoirs, known, which it requires time and labour to discover. At the age of fifty, a person may flatter himself that he knows something: but, before that age, it is impossible that he should know much."

One of the most important events in the life of Huet was his journey to Sweden. He had long lived in habits of great intimacy with the celebrated Bochart, whom Christina, of Sweden, had invited to Stockholm; and on his pressing intreaty, Huet, contrary to his own inclinations, (which impelled him to the classical ground of the south,) agreed to be of his party. The memoirs before us give some pleasing particulars of their journey; and in his poems we have a poetical relation of it, in which the style of Horace's account of his journey to Brundusium, is not unsuccessfully imitated. A translation of it by J. Duncombe, M.A. was printed in the Gentleman's Magazine, and in Dodsley's Annual Register for 1771.—The travellers arrived at Stockholm, at an unpropitious moment. Christina, by the advice of Baudelot, her physician, (whom Huet describes as an artful Frenchman,) had laid aside her studies, as hurtful to her health; and with them her taste for the society of learned men forsook her. The consequence was that Bochart and his friend did not meet with the reception which they had expected; and after a short stay they returned to France.—From this part of the work, we transcribe for our readers an interesting account of the island of Huen, the scene of Tycho Brahe's astronomical labours:

> 'In the Danish strait called the Sound there is a small island named Huen, gently rising above the sea so as to afford a free prospect on all sides. This spot appeared to the king extremely well accommodated to the studies and observations of Tycho; and sending for him, he presented him for life with the usufruct of the island (it is royal property,) and gave him it to inhabit. At the same time he settled upon him ample revenues, and further promised that he would never withhold his assistance either in erecting buildings on the island, or in providing astronomical instruments. Tycho gratefully and gladly accepted this gift, and laid the foundation of the castle of Uraniburg on the 8th of August, 1576, the first stone being at his desire placed by Charles Danzée, the French king's ambassador in Denmark. Having frequently, while a boy, looked at the figure of this building in Tycho's books at the house of my relation Gilles Macé, whom I often heard relating anecdotes of the founder, my mind was so much impressed by the circumstance, that in preference to every thing else, and to Copenhagen itself, I felt a violent longing to indulge myself with the real sight of the place. But although I was very importunate with my companions to take the voyage, I was unable to gain their compliance, so little were they inspired with the love of astronomy. One of them alone consented to accompany me; and hiring a vessel, with a gentle south wind we reached Huen on May 24th,

1652. This island is by some called Venusia; by others the Scarlet isle, of which last appellation I suppose the origin to have been the following incident related to me upon good authority, as having taken place in the reign of Frederic II. Some English at Copenhagen had offered to the king that if he would sell them this island they would pay him, as its price, as much English scarlet cloth as would go round its out-most margin, adding moreover a piece of gold for every fold in the cloth. The king inconsiderately accepted the offer, not reflecting that if the English were to fortify the island, they might shut up the Sound with their fleets, and deprive the crown of its passage dues. Being therefore better advised, he determined to keep it in his possession, but at the same time he was very anxious not to appear to forfeit his word. In this emergence, his fool, whom he kept according to court custom, came to his relief. "Why (said he) is your majesty so much disquieted? say you will stand to the bargain, and sell them Huen, provided the purchasers immediately convey it away to the English sea; for that they must be mad if they suppose you will suffer them to stick in your very jaws." The wise counsel of the fool was followed, and the hopes of the English were frustrated; and hence, as I conjecture, the island retained the name of Scarlet.

'On landing, we walked to the little village which is the only one on the island. We were received by the Lutheran minister after the customary manner in Denmark and Sweden, where the clergy are extremely hospitable, and open their doors to strangers, expecting no gain, but merely the repayment of what they expend; a liberality that appears to me highly suitable to christian piety, and worthy to be imitated by the other nations who profess the name of Christ. Some refer this beneficence to the kings, asserting that they permit the country ministers to dwell in these mansions upon the condition of their admitting strangers. It is certain that among all these northern nations the duties of hospitality are held in great honour and respect. Being therefore kindly received, after we had rested a while, we began to make many enquiries of our host, and the other surrounding inhabitants of Huen, respecting Tycho, and the castle of Uraniburg, the object of our visit; and to my surprise, they all affirmed that these names were entirely unknown to them. But understanding that there was one very aged inhabitant on the island, I caused him to be sent for. When I asked him whether he had ever heard of Tycho Brahe, and of a castle built by him to which he gave the name of Uraniburg, and in which he dwelt for twenty-one years, he replied that he not only knew them both, but had been for some time in the service of Tycho, and had assisted in building his castle. He informed me that Tycho was a violent and passionate man, often abusing his servants and tenants, and given to wine and women,—that he had married a wife of the lowest extraction in his native village of Knudstrup, by whom he had many children, the disgrace of which alliance had greatly offended the illustrious family of Brahe. The good man then added, that if I came to see Uraniburg I should lose my labour, since it had been levelled to the ground, and scarcely the traces of the walls were left. When I enquired of him, as I had before

fore done of some learned men of Copenhagen, the cause of this destruction, I found much contrariety of opinion. The latter in general affirmed that Tycho himself, on quitting Denmark, had demolished his own work; whereas it is certain that he left his affairs at Huen and Uraniburg to the management of a farmer and some servants, as the produce of this estate had been conferred upon him for life by king Frederic. Some asserted that Swedish troops had landed on the island in time of war and committed these ravages; a circumstance which could not but have been known to the old inhabitant, who referred the cause to the raging seas and stormy winds of the Sound, by which a slightly timbered building was easily shaken: especially as the courtiers, who obtained a grant of the island from the king after Tycho, took little care of preserving an edifice dedicated to astronomical purposes.

'But from this incident we may learn how vain a thing is that glory which is sought with so much contention. For what could Tycho have in view as the reward of his long and earnest studies, except glory, his passion for which was not extinguished by the immediate prospect of death; for as he was breathing his last, he consoled himself with the expected grateful remembrance of posterity, and closed his eyes in the frequent repetition of the words "May I be thought not to have lived in vain!" Can *he* be considered as having reaped the fruit of his labour, who experienced the enmity of the king and nobles of the land? who saw his toils held in contempt, their products abortive, and himself precluded even by a judicial decree from making astronomical observations? and who, in fine, an exile from his family, his pleasant habitation, and his country, in a foreign soil, and under the control of others, ended his life among a few friends, leaving the astronomical apparatus which he had provided with so much ingenious contrivance, and at so great an expence, exposed to the rapacity of ignorant foreigners—to which rapacity it, in fact, became a prey some years after, when it was totally pillaged by the Palatine troops — whilst his own children were left in obscurity, and almost in indigence? Such is the termination of human hopes! such the result of that insane love of praise and unbounded thirst of glory, stimulated by which, generous souls abandon themselves to the pursuit of vulgar fame, which, as it rests often on the false, and always on the light and mutable opinions of men, fades with the lapse of years, and generally vanishes in the oblivion of posterity!

'Of the cause which obliged Tycho to quit his country, Gassendi (Vit. Tychonis) has treated at large; I have however learned at Copenhagen, from persons who revered his memory, some circumstances relative to it, omitted by that writer, and worthy of being recorded. Although Tycho sometimes spoke of injuries sustained by him in Denmark, it was without any complaint of king Christiern, whom he rather openly excused; yet, it is certain that he lost the favour of the court, and by his majesty's order was stript of the royal bounty, which, however, he bore in silence, knowing that kings have long hands. But the following story was told me as the origin of his disgrace. The English ambassador to Denmark had brought with him a mastiff of extraordinary size, which caught the eye of Tycho,

> who requested it of him, to take to Uraniburg as a faithful guard to his castle. But the same gift was also asked by the master of the court, Christopher Walchandorp; and as the ambassador did not chuse to offend either, he refused them both; promising that as soon as he should return to England he would send over a brace of mastiffs, one for each. This he performed; but as one of them appeared the superior in form and stature, Walchandorp claimed it for himself, and the king adjudged it to him, notwithstanding the remonstrances of Tycho. Greatly indignant at this decision, he was led in his passion to use some unguarded expressions relative to the king, which were immediately carried to him by the master of the court, and hence proceeded the royal displeasure.'

We must stop in this place to notice some of the principal works of Huet. The first in time, and among the first in value, are his two Dialogues, *De optimo genere Interpretandi*, and *De claris Interpretibus*: both of which he supposes to have taken place in Casaubon's library, a few days after his translation of Polybius had made its appearance. Thuanus the historian, Fronto Ducæus, and Casaubon himself are the interlocutors: but Casaubon, as may be expected, sustains the principal part of the dialogues. In the first of them, he lays down the laws of translation; and he contends that all translation, except of works of poetry, should be very literal: the conversation is renewed on the following day, when the characters of the principal interpreters are brought under examination, and their respective merits are assigned to them. Both the dialogues are written in the purest latinity, and are replete with various and recondite learning. They contain also much curious information, which it is difficult to find out of them, on the translations of the Greek romances, and on Arabic and Rabbinical versions. They may be placed on a level with Erasmus's Ciceronianus; and this is giving them no low degree of praise.

As a popular composition, Huet's treatise *De origine Fabularum Romanensium* was soon translated into French, and prefixed to Mademoiselle la Fayette's celebrated novel of *Zayde*. It displays some learning and affords some entertainment: but the late Bishop Warburton, in a note to Shakspeare's Love's Labour lost, (Steevens's and Johnson's ed. 2d vol. p. 522.) speaks thus slightly of it: "Monsieur Huet, who wrote a formal treatise on the Origin of Romances, has said little or nothing in that superficial work. For, having brought down the account of Romances to the later Greeks, and entered upon those which were composed by barbarous western writers, which have now the name of romances almost appropriated to them, he puts the change upon the reader, and, instead of an account of those books of chivalry, one of the most various and interesting parts of the subject, he contents himself with a long account of the poems of the provincial writers, called likewise romances; and so, under the equivoque of a common term, drops his proper subject, and entertains us with another that had no relation to it, more than in name."—A more interesting work of Huet is his *Treatise on the Commerce and Navigation of the Antients;* in which he has pressed into a small volume almost all that is known on this subject: but his most important production is his *Demonstratio Evangelica,* which manifests extraordinary erudition. The celebrated Leibnitz, (tom. v. p. 461. Epis. 5.) speaks in terms of the highest praise of the learning, method, and close reasoning which it displayed. The principal object of it is to shew the accomplishment of the prophecies of the Old Testament in the person of our Saviour.—An edition of *the Works of Origen* completed Huet's theological labours.

Though, however, the attention of Huet was chiefly attracted, it was not altogether engrossed, by theological learning. He was conversant in mathematics and experimental philosophy; and in many parts of his works he speaks of Euclid with all the warmth of a Cambridge geometer: but he shews himself a warm enemy of the Cartesian philosophy, and mentions with some surprise that it had found a zealous advocate in Bossuet. To confute and ridicule it, he composed several works; the best of which appears to be his *Censura Philosophiæ Cartesianæ.* He observes that the whole system of Cartesian metaphysics is grounded on the glaring *Petitio Principii,* in the celebrated conclusion of Descartes, "*I think, therefore I am.*"—"*I think,*" (says Huet), is an abbreviation of the phrase, *I am thinking;* so that, when you say, *I think, therefore I am,* you only say, *I am, therefore I am.* Thus the premises and the conclusion are confounded, and each of them expressed the same, and exactly the same thing, as the other."

Huet was also a poet; and Dr. Aikin, in the following passage of his Appendix, seems to give a just estimate of his poetical character:

'From the preface of Grævius it appears that the Latin poetry of Huet was highly admired in its time; and Menage has not scrupled to call him "the greatest poet of the age." In reality, he wrote Latin verse with great purity, was a skilful imitator of the styles of different Roman poets, and had the phraseology and diction of poetry at command. But to these qualities his poetical powers seem to have been limited; for it would not be easy to point out in his compositions any thing like sublimity of original conception, or even any passage of distinguished elegance or beauty not manifestly copied from the writers of antiquity. And if, in some of his pieces, there is the appearance of ingenious invention, it is not of the kind that denotes a vigorous imagination, but is rather the product of a mind sporting with the trite fancies of classical fable.

'To the "Huetiana" are annexed five more Eclogues of the mythological kind, composed about his eightieth year, and which display the same florid elegance and facility as those of his earlier days. While these late exertions are a proof of the longevity of his poetical faculty, they also imply that it was rather the result of practice, and a memory stored with foreign ideas, than of native genius. What a forward youth might write on leaving school, is not very extraordinary in a man of fourscore.'

We find in the work before us the succeeding mention of two of our countrymen:

'About this period (1676) I received a visit of respect from Edward Bernard, an Englishman, whom few in this age equalled in erudition; and in modesty scarcely any. I however except Thomas Gale, another Englishman; whom, for the endowments both of learning and modesty, I prefer not only to Bernard, but to all the men whom I have ever known.'

When we consider that this eulogium on Bernard and Gale proceeds from one of the most learned men that have existed, and who was intimately acquainted with the greatest scholars, of his time, we feel a pride in the high compliment which it pays to our countrymen: but how very small a portion of fame does even such erudition confer on its professors, for of those who read the pages now under our eye, how few have heard of either Bernard or Gale!

It is remarkable that, notwithstanding his profound studies, Huet found time to mix with the world, and had the manners and habits of a gentleman who was accustomed to good society. His morals were always unimpeached. In 1670, without any other recommendation than his merit, and the discernment of M. de Montausier, he was appointed sub-preceptor to the Dauphin; in consequence of which he assisted in the Delphin edition of the classics, and presided over its execution:

'The plan of the Delphin classics,' says Dr. Aikin, 'does credit both to the duke of Montausier, the original projector, and to Huet who bestowed so much pains on its execution; for although the helps provided for learners in these editions are for the most part calculated for the level of school-boys, and much repetition is incurred by annexing such explanations to every single author, yet those which came from the hands of the superior order of scholars contain many valuable notes and illustrations, which have contributed much to the elucidation of ancient literature. The use of the copious verbal indexes has been experienced by every student who has had occasion to scrutinize the exact meanings of words, and the authorities on which they are founded. With respect to the idea of forming a vocabulary of pure Latinity from the union of such indexes, it does not seem different from what is done in the best dictionaries, which insert in their leading vocabulary only words derived from approved authors, and throw into a separate division such as are the product of times when the language became corrupted. There is, indeed, no small difficulty in drawing the line between writers who are, and who are not, to be admitted as authorities in this point; and the mere arbitrary designation of *classics*, applied to authors so different in talents and cultivation, cannot satisfy one who takes a liberal view of language.

'The number of volumes published "in usum Delphini," is 62, all printed between 1674 and 1691, with the exception of Ausonius, who did not appear till 1730. It is remarkable that Lucan is not among the number. — The exception is honourable to him; he was too much the poet of liberty to suit the age of Louis XIV.!'

On the marriage of the Dauphin, Huet quitted the court, and entered into the ecclesiastical profession, in which he was successively promoted to the bishoprics of Soissons and Avranches. The latter he resigned in 1699, and received from the King the Abbey of Fontenay. Soon after his appointment to the sub-preceptorship of the Dauphin, he had been chosen a member of the *Académie des Quarante*; which, under the old *regime*, was the *Cordon bleu* of literary eminence. He had long before been put on the French literary pension-list; and he mentions with gratitude that, when other such donations were struck off, his allowance was continued to him. We did not know, till we read this passage, that Louis the Fourteenth's literary pensions, respecting which the Gallican trumpet has blown so loud, came to an untimely end. In England, few, too few of these rewards have been granted: but those which have been allotted have never been discontinued.

Huet passed the last twenty years of his life at Paris; and in the 85th year of his age, he composed the memoirs before us:

'It is remarkable,' says Dr. Aikin in the concluding note, 'that a few days before his death his faculties appeared to be rekindled, and his memory was restored. This short interval he employed in the exercises of piety proper to the impending change; and he quietly expired on January 26th, 1721, at his retreat among the Jesuits of Paris.

'Little addition needs be made to the view he has himself afforded of his character. It was purely that of a man devoted to literature, his passion for which absorbed all other propensities. It did not, however, interfere with that social civility and disposition to oblige, which was partly the instinct of his natural temper, partly the habit of a polished age and country. Yet he displayed no small degree of impatience under criticism; and from some of his manuscript letters he seems to have given way to querulous dissatisfaction with his relations and fellow-townsmen, especially in his declining years. Though he had his own peculiar controversies, he wisely abstained from interfering in those disputes between the different religious parties which so much agitated France at the close of Louis the Fourteenth's reign; and his attachment to the Society of Jesuits was merely in their private and literary capacity. His profound and extensive erudition gave him a high rank among the learned, not only in his own country, but throughout Europe; and his works were generally received with much respect and deference. A catalogue of these, extended to the limits of a brief analysis, is all that remains to complete the plan of this publication.'

This is a fair and by no means a flattering portrait of the celebrated Huet. We are obliged to Dr. Aikin for giving these memoirs an English dress, and for adding to the value of the work by his notes, which convey much acceptable information. In the performance of his task, the Doctor has succeeded so well, that we wish to call his attention to another work of the same cast, Cardinal Quirini's account "*De rebus ad eum pertinentibus*:" which will afford Dr. A. an opportunity of presenting his English readers with a succinct view of the Modern Literature of Italy, — a new, a various, and an interesting subject.

ART. V. *The Select Works of Antony Van Leeuwenhoek*, containing his Microscopical Discoveries in many of the Works of Nature. Translated from the Dutch and Latin Editions published by the Author. By Samuel Hoole. Vol. IId. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol and Son, &c.

SEVERAL years having elapsed since the first volume of this translation was published *, we almost despaired of its continuance: but we were glad to perceive that our fears were unfounded, and to have it in our power to announce its completion. The present volume, like the former, consists of a number of unconnected treatises on different branches of natural history, the chief interest of which depends on the microscopical observations for which the author is so justly celebrated. We shall mention the subjects of the different articles in the order in which they stand, enlarging on some of the most curious of them.

The first essay is on the formation of different kinds of Wood, elm, beech, willow, alder, &c. accompanied by plates of the appearances which they exhibit when highly magnified; the principal object being to point out the relative size and situation of the perpendicular vessels, as affected by the annual growth of the tree.—We have next some observations on the Herring, particularly on its food; and afterward an essay on the Ant. In his account of the latter, the author combats some opinions which have been generally adopted respecting it, and which still form a part of the popular belief. He was led to conclude 'that the Ant, as well as the Weevil and other minute animals (in these cold regions), does, in the winter season, lie without motion, and does not take any nourishment; and that the collections of food which Ants are observed to make, and to heap together in their nests, during the summer season, is for no other purpose than to feed their young.' This opinion is rendered very probable by many of the facts which are adduced. Respecting the bodies vulgarly called ant's eggs, it is remarked that they are found nearly as large as the ant itself, and therefore must have grown after they left the body of the parent. This consideration led the author to examine more particularly into their nature, when he found them to be maggots, in which the rudiments of the future animal may be perceived; the proper eggs are much smaller, and may be detected in great numbers in the nests. It is for the supply of these maggots that the old ants carry food during the summer, the maggots being themselves incapable of motion. M. Leeuwenhoek conjectures that the food is first received into the stomach of the Ant, and there undergoes some change, which renders it more proper for the support of the young animal.—This altogether forms one of the most curious articles in the volume, and announces information which has not perhaps been sufficiently noticed by subsequent naturalists.

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* See Rev. Vol. xxix. N. S. p.408. and xxxv. p. 287.

An amusing paper occurs respecting the Flea. As soon as the young worm leaves the egg, it spins for itself a web, in which it lies for some time quite concealed; and it appears that there is an immediate necessity for this process, because a minute insect of the mite kind exists, which would prey on the worm if it had not this protection. Perhaps no animal exhibits a greater display of curious mechanism; and the author seems to have examined and described it with the most minute accuracy.—The succeeding observations are on the seeds of some different kinds of Trees, on the generation of Eels, and on the eye of the Beetle. So far from the last animal possessing an imperfect sight, according to the vulgar proverb, it is furnished with above 3,000 eyes, each of them possessing a distinct lens and optic nerve.—The same essay contains some remarks on the brain of the Gnat, and the circulation of the blood in the Crab.—The next object that is described is the protuberance which is occasionally found on the leaf of the Wil-

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each single Fibre was no larger than in the smaller fish; and indeed I have seen the Fibres in some cod-fish, eight times the size of those in a whale.

'I also examined the component Fibres in the flesh of a mouse, a calf, and a hog, and found their formation to be the same as before described, namely, each surrounded with a particular membrane, and composed of smaller filaments: the Fibres in the flesh of all these animals was nearly of the size I have before laid down, so that I may say, the fleshy Fibres composing the body of an ox are not, singly taken, larger than those which go to the substance of a mouse, though, as I have computed, the one animal is thirty thousand times the size of the other.'

From some interesting remarks on the external membrane of the human skin, it appears to consist of a continuous layer of proper scales, so extremely minute that 200 of them 'may be covered by a common grain of sand;' they are disposed with great regularity, and are of a pentagonal figure. It would seem that the skin has no proper pores, except such as exist in the interstices of these scales. The author thinks that their number is the same at all ages, and that therefore, as the body increases in size, each individual scale must grow proportionably. — We have next some observations on gouty and urinary concretions, and on the nature of Gunpowder; subjects on which the author's knowlege was necessarily very deficient; and we afterward come to a train of microscopical experiments on the Louse, which, were it not for the disgust excited by the object, we should rank among the most attractive parts of the volume. We shall only notice one fact, which the writer seems to have discovered, that the sensation of itching, produced by these animals, is not caused by their bite, but by a sting which the male protrudes from the extremity of its body.

M. Leeuwenhoek's next investigations relate to some of the most minute animals that are perceptible to the naked eye; viz. the Mite, the different kinds of insects which injure fruit-trees, and the animalcules that are found in the sediment of water. — To the subsequent paper, which gives an account of the circulation of the blood in the tail of the Eel, the translator subjoins a description of the microscopes which were employed, taken from the writings of Mr. Baker. — In the next essay, on Frogs, and on the manner in which they are produced from tadpoles, we have a number of additional observations on the globules of the blood, especially respecting their shape and size:

'In my several observations on the circulation of the blood in fishes, I have not been able clearly to satisfy myself with regard to the shape of the globules or component particles of the blood, for they sometimes appeared of a spherical, and sometimes of an oval and even a flat shape, and sometimes an irregular figure; this I sometimes attributed to my glasses not being of sufficient magnifying power to distinguish them, and sometimes to the position in which they appeared to the eye, for, while in circulation, they tumbled one over another, sometimes presenting one part and sometimes another to the view; and I also thought that it might be owing to the straitness of the vessels, in which the particles of blood, being of a yielding nature, might, by the compression, lose their spherical figure.

'In order to satisfy myself in some degree on this head, I cut off pieces from the tails of several small flat fish, such as Plaice and Flounders, in order to view the blood when drawn out of the vessels, and the rather, because I could not persuade myself, that the natural shape of the particles of blood in fishes was an oval; forasmuch, as a spherical seemed to me to be the more perfect form. For I was of opinion, that the particles of blood in fishes were composed of six globules, in like manner with the blood in man, and in terrestrial animals: and I several times saw the particles of fishes' blood, the original texture of which was broken, and in which I could distinctly see four or five, and in some few of them six component particles. I, however, thought it worthy of note, that many of these particles of blood appeared to me of an oval shape, some few others roundish, and others of a perfect spherical figure.

'In order farther to prosecute my inquiries on this subject, I took the blood of a Salmon not quite dead, which was received into a glass tube, about the size of a small writing pen: this blood, after a short time, became coagulated; but having restored it in part to its fluidity, I put it into a smaller glass tube, in which I viewed it, holding it so, that the particles of blood might be kept in motion continually, by which means many of the particles appeared before my sight with a flat and oval shape; in others the sides of which were turned towards me, I could scarcely perceive any sensible thickness; and in short, others, where their sides were not exactly turned towards me, appeared somewhat broader in proportion to their size; but I could not discover one particle of blood of a perfect spherical shape.'

We have quoted this description at length, because it is a subject which has given rise to much controversy, and the passage must impress the reader with a favourable opinion of the author's candour. Apparently, he could scarcely be deceived respecting the shape of the globules, although we do not assent to his theory of their composition.

We now come to some remarks on Phosphorus, and on the sting of the Gnat; experiments on Insensible Perspiration; observations on the common Fly, and on the eggs of the Shrimp; essay on the Salts contained in Pepper, Tea, and Cantharides; on the embryo plant discoverable in Seeds and Buds; and on the structure of the Nerves. The observations on the nerves are very curious; and had they obtained more general attention, they might, perhaps, have prevented the appearance of some of those idle hypotheses which have been formed respecting the origin of the sensations. The author speaks of the nerves as being 'composed of very minute vessels of an incredible thinness, which, running by the sides of each other, constitute a nerve.' As to the size of them, the vessels are described as being so small, that 'some hundreds of them go to the composition of a nerve no larger than the hair of a man's beard; and although (says the writer) these cavities, or the orifices of these vessels, are so wonderfully minute, I have seen living creatures in the waters, which could have moved and swam about in them with freedom.' We are informed that the author, at the time when he made these minute observations, was not less than 85 years of age.

A paper succeeds on the quantity of Air contained in Water and other fluids; and afterward a description of an ingenious contrivance for illustrating the effect which the Earth's motion about its axis must have on the atmosphere. It is supposed that the centrifugal force will throw off the clouds from the centre, and thus support them at some distance from the earth's surface. — In some remarks on the circulation of the Blood, the principal object is to shew that the circuit must be complete in different times, according to the distance of the parts from the heart. By comparing together the observations which he has made on various subjects, the author concludes that the blood circulates through the tail of the Eel 13 times in an hour, while in the upper parts of the body it will circulate 96 times. Provided that the blood in the human body moves at the same rate as in the Eel, it will pass through the lower extremities only between two and three times in an hour, through the upper extremities above four times, and through the head eight times: but, in an hour, as much blood will pass through the heart as is equal to 14 times the quantity contained in the whole body. The proportions of these numbers may probably be correct, but we think that the whole estimate is considerably too low. — With some remarks on the nature of Lime, on Wood that has been worm-eaten, and on the Eyes of Fish, the volume concludes.

The estimate of Leeuwenhoek's merits as a naturalist must be considerably raised in the minds of those who peruse these volumes; and who, though they may have frequently heard him quoted, or have occasionally examined some parts of his works, had not before so fully conceived the extent of his labours. His writings have certainly been too much neglected, and therefore we cannot but express our obligation to Mr. Hoole for putting them in so commodious a form, in a translation which seems to be well executed; and we must not omit to render a due tribute of applause to the excellence of the engravings. The notes, which are occasionally added, do not in our opinion increase the value of the work: but they are not very numerous.

Art. VI. *Notes on the Viceroyalty of La Plata, in South America;* with a Sketch of the Manners and Characters of the Inhabitants, collected during a Residence in the City of Monte Video, by a Gentleman recently returned from it. To which is added a History of the Operations of the British Troops in that Country, and biographical and military Anecdotes of the principal Officers employed in the different Expeditions. Illustrated with a Portrait, Map, and Plans. 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. J. J. Stockdale.

A THIRD part of this volume is occupied with desultory *notes* respecting the country and the people of the viceroyalty of La Plata, and the rest is devoted to an historical account of our unfortunate expedition to that quarter, under the *ci-devant* Lieut.-Gen. Whitelocke; whose trial, says the writer, has convincingly proved the facility with which the conquest of Buenos Ayres and Monte Video might have been obtained, and possession of them retained by the adoption of proper measures: — with a view of the incalculable advantages which we have been compelled to relinquish, in consequence of our having pursued improper steps. The author therefore deems it unnecessary to apologize for this publication, and flatters himself that, as our re-occupation of Monte Video at least would be an object of the first importance to the commercial relations of Great Britain, the scheme is not entirely abandoned, and the last effort towards that effect has not yet been made. This was written before the commencement of our existing amity with the Spaniards; and perhaps our present experience, in trading to the Plata, will shew that the author greatly over-rated the benefits of commerce with this region:

> ‘By the narrow and jealous policy of the Spanish colonial laws, the growth of many fruits are prohibited, which, under the auspices of the English government, might be cultivated with such profit and advantage, as to constitute no inconsiderable article of commerce. The cultivation of vineyards, which would in that case be allowed, would form an important consideration. The grapes which this country produces are excellent, and the finest and most delicious wines might be easily made.
>
> ‘The demand for the manufactures of Great Britain is immense. For these, the Rio de la Plata would afford an inlet to the whole continent, and the export of those valuable articles, hides, tallow,

copper, wool, bark, &c. &c. which would be received in return, render the possession of this country an invaluable acquisition.

'To be in possession of the river, it is by no means necessary that we should be in possession of Buenos Ayres. Perhaps every commercial advantage would equally result from confining our views to Monte Video alone, inclusive of the north side of the river from Maldonado to Colonia. This includes a great extent of territory, bounded by the Brazils; and as the Court of Portugal has now removed to that country, the proximity of a friendly power renders an establishment here a more important object.

'Were we once more to take possession of Monte Video, the Spaniards of the interior, for their own interest and convenience, would soon be compelled to consent to a free communication. The thirst for traffic, and desire of gain, which is generally a leading feature in the character of every Spaniard, would prevent them from remaining long in a state of hostility. They would gladly embrace the first offers of peace. Were we to declare the country independent of Spain, under the protection of the British government, there is not a man among them but would fly to us with joy, and regard us as protectors.

'Were we, as should have been done at first, to hold out to the inhabitants peace and conciliation, and were it made known to them that our only wish was to establish them on the footing of an independent state, I venture to affirm, that no exertion on the part of the self-interested Audienza of Buenos Ayres, and officers from Old Spain, could prevent the inhabitants of that extensive and populous city from seeking an intercourse with us.

'At a moment like the present, when our manufactures are shut out from the continent of Europe, and when the threatening aspect of affairs in America indicates every appearance of an impending war, ought an object of such magnitude, in which is involved the interests of the great body of merchants, on whom the support of the country depends, to be passed by with neglect?

'By commerce the British empire alone exists. When the sources of that are cut off, we can only expect immediate ruin and annihilation.'

The trade of the province of La Plata, had we such a footing there that we could command it almost exclusively, without any restrictions from the Spanish government, might be advantageous to this country: but its beneficial operations would be too slow to afford our commerce the relief which it immediately requires. The whole trade of America, did we enjoy it, would go but a little way towards compensating for our loss on being excluded from the ports of Europe; and perhaps no measure is now left for affording present assistance to the cramped commerce of this country, but that of abolishing all monopolies, and throwing the trade to the East Indies entirely open. It is a curious fact, but one which cannot be denied, that the New England States employ a greater quantity of tonnage in that trade than our East India Company; and this is a circumstance which sufficiently speaks for itself.

The author gives an amusing account of the climate, the natural productions, and the animals of the province of La Plata; of the manners, customs, and mode of life of the inhabitants of Monte Video; of their houses, furniture, &c.: but his work is not calculated for improving our geographical knowlege of that new country, since he does not state the latitudes and longitudes of places.

As a general idea of the manners of the people of this province has now become prevalent among us, by repeated recent descriptions, we do not mean to form an abstract of the present detail, nor to make any considerable quotations from it: but we will extract the account of the Paraguay herb, and the mode of taking an infusion of it:

> 'The court-yards in Monte Video are adorned with tubs and flower-pots filled with the various shrubs and plants of the country. At the sides, raised about two feet from the ground, are beds of earth, in which orange-trees, lemon trees, and grape-vines are planted. There is usually a frame suspended across the roof for the support of the vine, which gives a shelter, and in the summer season forms a delicious shade with clusters of grapes hanging down. The senses are thus refreshed, and the air delightfully cooled and perfumed by the fragrance. Under this shade the morning and evening is usually passed, and the dinner table often spread in sultry weather. Beneath the covert of these vines the men spend their hours in conversation and smoking. The women at their needles, thrumming the guitar, or taking their favourite *maté*.
>
> 'To the use of this herb the inhabitants are universally and immoderately addicted. It is not entirely confined to the natives of the country, but strangers, and those from Old Spain, after living some time among them, become equally fond of it. It serves them for breakfast, the use of tea, coffee, and chocolate, being uncommon in families. They seldom take any thing in the morning besides this herb; which they drink as soon as they rise, and at all hours of the day, frequently even at their meals. They never eat until they have first refreshed themselves by sucking their beloved beverage.
>
> 'The manner in which it is taken is not perfectly consonant with European ideas of delicacy. Instead of drinking it as we take tea, they put the plant into a calabash, sometimes mounted with silver, and pour boiling water upon it; many prefer it mixed with sugar and milk. The vessel out of which it is drank, is called a *maté*; from which the same name is also vulgarly given to the plant. The real name however is *Paraguay*, as it is chiefly produced in that extensive province. A globular cup or goblet of silver, placed on a high stand of the same metal, is commonly made use of among the richer class. Hot as it is, and it is usually enough so to scald the tongue of an European, they drink it, summer as well as winter, the instant that the

the water is poured in from the kettle. The infusion is sucked through a silver tube. The end which is put into the cup is swelled into a bulb with a number of small holes perforated through it like a strainer to keep the floating fragments from coming through. The liquor is thus drank without swallowing the leaves of the plant. A whole family or a large party is supplied from the same bowl and with the same tube. They suck, one after the other, as it is passed from hand to hand, far from considering it a breach of decorum, and without any of those sentiments of repugnance with which an European is usually infected. After the liquor is drank by one, a second infusion of hot water is poured upon the plant that remains in the cup, for the use of another. This is often repeated five or six times without adding a fresh quantity of the herb, which retains its strength and taste for a long while before it is exhausted. The use of this plant is universal, being confined to no class. The slave drinks it as well as his master, and usually out of the same vessel too. The taste is not unpleasant, and when mixed like tea it is very good. From the manner in which it is drank, I did not get much addicted to it.

' This famous herb is thought by the natives to be endowed with a great number of medicinal virtues. I do not however imagine that its good qualities are so numerous as is said. Were credit given to their assertions it would be a sovereign remedy for every disease. It is without doubt a strong diuretic, and the leaves when outwardly applied to wounds are extremely efficacious. The leaf is in shape somewhat similar to that of the orange. Immense quantities of this plant are sent annually into Peru, and exported from Paraguay into all other parts of the Spanish dominions.'

A disgusting feature in the character of these people is their extreme and *wholesale* barbarity to the numerous race of oxen and horses, with which Providence has so remarkably supplied them.

The superstition and ignorance encouraged in this province by the Catholic religion, as at all other places in which it predominates, are strikingly displayed by various instances in this volume; and the author relates the circumstances of a dinner-visit which he paid to a fraternity of monks, which are more creditable to their hospitality than to the austerity and sanctity of their profession.

It does not appear that the writer personally acted any part in the unfortunate military operations which we carried on at La Plata, because he says that he never was at Buenos Ayres; and he readily acknowleges his obligations for the *historical part* to the zeal and industry of some friends: but it seems to be little more than a transcript from the narrative of that affair by Mr. Bordwine, which was published previously to General Whitelocke's court-martial.

To these notes is added a supplement, containing short biographical particulars of Sir Home Popham, Sir Samuel Auchmuty, General Beresford, Lieut.-General Whitelocke, Lieut.-Col. Vassall, &c. The portrait of Sir S. Auchmuty is prefixed; and the work contains also a map of South America, with plans of the Rio de la Plata, Maldonado Bay, Monte Video, and Buenos Ayres.

Art. VII. *History of Brazil,* comprising a geographical Account of that Country, together with a Narrative of the most remarkable Events which have occurred there since its Discovery; a Description of the Manners, Customs, Religion, &c. of the Natives and Colonists: interpersed with Remarks on the Nature of its Soil, Climate, Productions, and foreign and internal Commerce. To which are subjoined Cautions to New Settlers for the Preservation of Health. By Andrew Grant, M.D. 8vo. pp. 304. 8s. 6d. Boards. Colburn.

This historical narrative and description of that extensive tract of country called Brazil, which reaches from 1° 30′ north to 32° south latitude, or about 2000 geographical miles, appears to be composed with a considerable degree of candour and precision; and the writer's account of the climate, natural productions, and animals of this immense territory, which was discovered in 1500 by the Portuguese Admiral Peter Alvarez de Cabral, on a voyage to the East Indies, is clear and distinct. On reading his description of the native Brazilians prior to that period, who were extremely tractable, ingenious, mild, hospitable, and unsuspicious, we feel almost inclined to regret that they should ever have been dispossessed of these good qualities, or interrupted in the enjoyment of them, by an intercourse with European invaders. Dr. Grant gives this delineation of their dispositions and prevalent customs:

'Hospitality universally prevailed among the natives, and before distrust and suspicion were introduced into their minds by the conduct of the Europeans, strangers were every where received among them with kindness and civility. Wherever they came, they were surrounded by the women, who washed their feet, and welcomed them with expressions of the greatest kindness. Neither expence nor trouble was spared in their entertainment, and it would have been regarded as an unpardonable insult, had they left the family in which they were first received, in hopes of better accommodation.

'While their hospitality was thus exercised toward strangers, they received their friends, after a long journey, with open arms and tears, beating their foreheads against their breasts, in remembrance of the misfortunes they had sustained during their absence.

'A community of goods generally prevails among rude and savage tribes, but at the period of which we are treating, the Brazilians were so far advanced in civilization, as to have acquired pretty correct ideas concerning property. When any one cultivated a field, he alone was entitled to its produce. When a family undertook a fishing or hunting excursion, they only shared the spoils with the cacique, or those of their relations who were confined at home by sickness; and he who encroached on what was thus caught, was sure to incur an exemplary punishment.

'They have no method of reckoning time, but they keep an account of their age by laying up a chesnut for every year, beginning the computation of their year with the rising of a star called *Taku*, or the *rain-star*.

'Many distempers which are common in Europe are unknown among the natives of Brazil. They use only simple remedies, and deride our multiform compositions. They employ scarification, and draw blood from the part by suction with horn cups; for that purpose they use, instead of a lancet, the tooth of a lamprey, termed by them *kakaon*, without which they never stir abroad. As soon as any of their friends or relatives fall sick, they all assemble, each recommending that remedy which from his own experience appears to him likely to prove successful. Sometimes, instead of the horn cups, they have recourse to suction with their mouths, by which means they affirm they draw all the *ill-humours* from the diseased part. According to Nieuhoff, when every thing fails, and the recovery of the patient is despaired of, they proceed to dispatch him with their clubs, regarding it as more glorious to be thus delivered from their misery, than suffered to linger out a painful existence.

'Such were the Brazilians at the period their country was discovered by the Portuguese: a tractable and ingenious people, ready to learn any art or science they might have been inclined to introduce among them. They were, it is true, not much disposed to labour, for their desires were few and easily gratified. While they were treated with kindness, they offered no objections to the occupation of lands by the strangers, wherever they might chuse.'

Into these new possessions in South America, which certainly form one of the finest portions of the globe, the Portuguese introduced negro slavery, with all its concomitant evils; and they compelled, for at least two centuries, the native Brazilians themselves to work like slaves on their plantations:—instead of conciliating their good will, or endeavouring to overcome their natural indolence arising out of the fewness of their wants and the abundant fertility of their soil, by exerting among them a taste for the conveniencies of civilized life, and making them consider themselves and the colonists as one people. The stale pretext, among Catholic enthusiasts and conquerors, of promoting the glory of God, was a cloak for all their iniquities and oppressions, while avarice was the paramount motive of all their actions. Much praise is however due to the Jesuit missionaries, who in a short time enlightened and civilized many of the natives of that part of the globe; and who would probably, had they not been interrupted in their course by becoming themselves objects of political persecution, have succeeded in bringing most of them into a state of civilization and social improvement. Their progress was an incontestable proof of the happy effects of kindness and humanity on Indian tribes; and though several of them were cut off, when they intrepidly dispersed themselves among these people, yet by perseverance, and by breathing the sentiments of only peace and charity, they at length gained the confidence of the natives, and were hailed with acclamations of joy wherever they appeared.

Chapters 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th contain the narrative of an unsuccessful attempt of the French to settle a colony in Brazil, the invasion of it by the Dutch, their struggles for its sovereignty with the Portuguese, till it was secured to the latter in 1661 by a treaty, (in consideration of eight millions of livres, which they were to pay either in money or goods to the former,) and of the dispute between the Portuguese and the Spaniards respecting settlements attempted to be made on the river of La Plata and that of the Amazons. In the remaining chapters, the author gives a perspicuous topographical description of the different provinces and captainships, into which Brazil is divided, with an account of its civil and ecclesiastical government, its productions, trade, manufactures, and military establishments. — An Appendix contains 'medical hints for Europeans migrating to Brazil, tables of the exchange and corn at ditto, with port-charges,' and a table of the latitudes and longitudes of the principal places, which may prove useful to geographers.

As Dr. Grant does not appear to speak from personal knowlege of the country which he delineates, we apprehend that his volume can be considered only as a compilation; and indeed his quotations from preceding writers seem to evince this circumstance, though they are not sufficiently frequent and numerous, as references to authorities, to be entirely satisfactory in perusing a history so constructed.

A much larger work on this subject, from the pen of Mr. Southey, will speedily require our notice.

Art. VIII. *A Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, Knight,* on the Revision of the Bankrupt Law. By William David Evans, Esq. 8vo. pp. 101. 3s. Reed. 1810.

We have lately had occasion to bear favourable testimony as well to the understanding, the judgment, and the learning, as to the enlarged views and spirit of enterprize which Mr. Evans possesses *. In the able pamphlet now before us, the learned writer touches on all the leading points of the bankrupt-laws, and throws out a variety of suggestions, the greater part of which appear to have been well considered by him, and to merit attention from others. He regards the bankrupt-laws as arrangements founded on the principle of the mutual advantage of the bankrupt and his creditors; and he points out the glaring inconsistency, with this principle, of the provisions which require a case of fraud or compulsion as the necessary foundation of a valid commission, and which preclude an insolvent debtor from intitling himself to the benefit of the bankrupt-laws by any direct voluntary act of his own. Mr. E. proposes under this head to introduce the regulations of the *contrat d'attermoiement* of the old French law, and those of the present law of Scotland; and he properly condemns the too narrow limits of human occupations, within which are confined the benefits of the bankrupt-laws. We agree with him in thinking that 'the rules of equitable distribution and personal exoneration should be as extensive as the cases of insolvency themselves.' The unblushing defence of dishonesty, which was called out by a late attempt to establish the rights of creditors, will be memorable in our history. Mr. Evans justly observes that what is termed "beginning to keep house" is too loose a definition of an act, which involves consequences so important as those which follow an act of bankruptcy; and his criticisms on the several assignments of a person's property which have been ruled to be acts of bankruptcy, we conceive to be justly applied. Indeed, this is the best reasoned part of his elaborate tract.—Mr. E. disapproves of its being left to *discretion* to supersede commissions of bankrupt.

The following brief remark is as well founded as it is well expressed, and is deserving of serious consideration:

> 'To every person who compares the very few provisions in the statute book respecting this extensive jurisdiction, with the numerous cases in the books of reports upon the exercise of it, who compares the terms in which the authority is given, with the extent to which it is carried, it must be an obvious remark, that never, upon so narrow

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* See Rev. Vol. lxii. N.S. p. 310.

a basis,

a basis, was there erected so large a superstructure of authority undefined, exclusive, and without appeal.'

It is impossible not to agree with Mr. Evans, in thinking that 'the course and limits of such authority would be more beneficially regulated by legislative provision, than by judicial discretion, especially by a discretion free from the usual checks.' He maintains, and it cannot be denied, that the legitimate limit of administering the bankrupt-laws does not extend beyond the adjustment of those claims which result from the bankruptcy itself; and that the power assumed of deciding questions between the estate of a bankrupt, and third persons in situations adverse to him, is an usurpation. Having descanted on the too great powers of the Great Seal, he is of opinion that those of the Commissioners are in some particulars too limited; and we think that, unquestionably, the commissioners ought to be enabled to permit a creditor, *without an order*, to prove his debt for the purpose of assenting to or dissenting from a certificate. The author next proceeds to the subjects of the penal consequences of a commission-bankrupt, the power of the commissioners to examine other persons than the bankrupt, the vast licence which they have in putting questions to such persons, the responsibility which attaches to assignees, the insufficient allowances to commissioners in country-commissions, superseding commissions, the places of executing them, payments to persons who are known to have committed acts of bankruptcy, the manner in which these acts affect title, second commissions when a certificate under the first has not been obtained, and the present strange regulations with respect to cases in which there are joint and separate debts.

Although Mr. Evans on all occasions very properly defers to the distinguished person whom he addresses, he has not hesitated freely to animadvert on two points introduced by Sir S. Romilly into the late Act; namely, that by which a party proving a debt is to be deemed to have made a complete election, and that which gives the power of allowing a certificate to a smaller proportion of the creditors.

For the ensuing observation we return our warmest thanks to the enlightened author. It ought to be written in legible characters, in some conspicuous part in each house of Parliament and every supreme court of justice:

'However justly we may be entitled to boast of the pre-eminence of our laws, and the excellence of their administration, it cannot be disputed that the disposition to extend their benefits by supplying their deficiencies is by no means prevalent or conspicuous; and that the numerous additions to the actual mass of legislation advance with a progressive accumulation, which bears an inverse proportion to the subjects of general interest that are included in them; and that never were the provisions that become incorporated with the juridical system of the country, less numerous and important than while the mere extent of the legislation upon subjects of limited importance has been increasing beyond the example of any former period, and I fear that a very inadequate answer would be given to this observation by alledging that the reason of the alterations of a different nature being so few, is the existence of a state of excellence and perfection which renders them unnecessary.'

It is not merely to the multiplicity of modern enactments that we may object: but the perplexity, confusion, looseness, and ambiguity, with which they are chargeable, are a disgrace to the age.

By this pamphlet, Mr. Evans has laid the public under essential obligations. No person ought to engage in revising the bankrupt-laws without carefully reading it; nor will it be perused with *slight* advantage by all such as are called to administer and act under these statutes.

ART. IX. *The Epistolary Correspondence of Sir Richard Steele;* including his familiar Letters to his Wife and Daughters; to which are prefixed, Fragments of three Plays; two of them undoubtedly Steele's, the third supposed to be Addison's, faithfully printed from the Originals; and illustrated with literary and historical Anecdotes. By John Nichols, F.S.A. E. and P. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Nichols and Son.

FROM the fatiguing and often invidious duty of stamping our critical mark on the productions of our cotemporaries, we turn back with pleasure to the contemplation of a literary character already so well known as that of Sir Richard Steele. This publication of his familiar correspondence is valuable, not for any new matter that it presents which is capable of raising his reputation as an author, but because it leads us into his private hours, admits us to the careless effusions of his heart, and furnishes materials for giving the final touches and colouring to his portrait.

The letters hitherto unpublished, in this collection, bear no resemblance to the elaborate and ornamented compositions which, under the name of epistles, many of the wits of Steele's time delighted in writing: they afford on the contrary internal evidence that they were meant solely for the perusal of those to whom they were addressed; and indeed some of them are so absolutely insignificant, that, were it not for the satisfaction which many people feel that "no part of a great man should be lost to posterity," the editor of this correspondence could not be ccused for wasting paper, in these taxing times, by the insertio of such epistolary morsels as the following:

'*To Mrs. Steele.*

'Dear Prue, 'Oct. 7, 1708.

'I send, directed to Watts, a bottle of tent. You must not expect me to-night; but I will write by the penny-post.

'I am your's faithfully, 'Richard Steele.'

'Dear Prue, 'Thursday, Oct. 7, 1708.

'I fear I shall not be able to come out of town till Saturday morning. I ine for ever, Richard Steele.'—

'Dea 'Nov. 18. 1708.

'I am g City, to make my demand of the money hasten thence to you; and am, with the te yc 'Richard Steele.'

'My 'March 2, 1708-9.

'I inclo y ld want. I am resolved to do something ryon; therefore do not expect me at dinner.

'My life i n you. I will be at home before six. —

'Richard Steele.'

'Dear Prue, 'March 11, 1708-9.

'I inclose five guineas, but cannot come home to dinner. Dear little woman, take care of thyself, and eat and drink chearfully.

'Richard Steele.'

These are fair specimens of the kind of letters which fill a large part of the first volume; and they can interest the reader only as they display the minute tenderness and the attentive affection which marked the character of Steele, in the relations of domestic life. We find, however, in this publication, other letters of more length and importance: but some of them are dedications to the several volumes of his periodical and other works, and for their re-insertion here we can discover no good reason. The worthy editor must excuse us for regarding such a practice as partaking too much of the nature of book-making; and if this system of book-making shall continue to flourish according to its present prosperous condition, the interests of literature will ultimately suffer, and the noble art, to which learning is indebted in a great measure for its resuscitation, may imperceptibly become the means of extinguishing it again. To speak, however, of the dedications themselves; they are pervaded by a manly, ingenuous spirit, humble though not low, and independent without affectation, that must have raised Steele very high in the minds of those to whom they were addressed. He indeed rescued this kind of writing from disgrace, and asserted the prerogative and pride of genius, which, in Dryden and others of the reigns of Charles and James, had stooped to the meanest adulation. The first dedication which Steele wrote (viz. to the second edition of his *Christian Hero*) is a remarkable instance of the spirit which we are noticing. It is expressed in an easy flow of elegant language, and in point of style is equal to any thing that subsequently issued from his pen. Towards the end of the dedication, he has this beautiful sentence, which does as much honour to his morality as to his taste: — "Go on, my Lord*, thus to contemn and thus to enjoy life; and if some great English day does not call for that sacrifice which you are always ready to offer, may you in a mature age go to sleep with your ancestors, in expectation, not of an imaginary fame, but a real and sensible immortality." (Vol. 1st. page 82.)

We meet also in this collection with three fragments of plays, viz. of two comedies by Steele, and of one tragedy attributed to Addison. The ascription of the last to Addison is founded on the similarity of its style to that of *Cato*; and we must confess that its most laboured passages possess the same equal flow of harmonious verse, and the same strain of elevated sentiment, which distinguish that celebrated production of Addison. It is not fair, however, to subject these fragments to the severity of criticism, since they must be considered merely as the first rude sketches of an imagination which would have perhaps entirely new-modelled their substance, and altered their form, had the plays of which they were intended as a part been finished.

With this brief notice of the contents of the volumes before us, we might rest satisfied as having executed our critical duty: but we cannot dismiss this last production of the famous *father of English Essay* without recurring to his general merit as an author, and dwelling with a mingled feeling of regret and delight on his character as a man.

It is the misfortune of Steele's fame to have come down to posterity in company with that of Addison. The near position of the two portraits has always suggested a comparison of their respective merits; and in the allotment of excellence and distribution of praise, the critics may have been too partial to the one and too parsimonious to the other. If we estimate the *genius* of the two writers from the sole consideration of their works, abstracted from the accidental circumstances under which they were written, no one will hesitate to give the palm of superiority to Addison: but if we look into the lives of the two men, and behold the genius of the one struggling to emancipate itself from the trammels of dissipation, and giving birth in the gloomy intervals of mental depression and remorse to the noblest conceptions and the most humourous designs; —if we trace him through his labours, continually annoyed by the difficulties of poverty and the stings of regret, never enjoying that tranquillity of mind which is so necessary for great exertion, and which the cold disposition and prudential habits of the other could always command;—and if, under such discouraging circumstances, whether induced by misfortune or by fault, we still see him laying the foundations of works that produced a new æra in the literary history of his country, and then winging a flight little short of that to which the genius of Addison soared;—it must be allowed that Steele possessed a vigour of mind and a hardihood of enterprize, an original, powerful, inventive capacity, which would probably have outstripped the talents of his friend, had he been free from those weighty incumbrances that unfortunately repressed his ardour and restrained its progress. Steele has the great merit of having forced his way into the Temple of Fame, while Addison suffered himself to be led into it by the hand:—the one wrote on a bed of thorns, the other composed on a couch of roses: the one led the way as the first essayist of his time, the other (although more splendidly) was contented to follow. Steele laid the foundation and performed the strong rough work, while Addison helped to build the superstructure, and to execute the beautiful ornaments, of the celebrated monument which their united efforts have left to posterity.

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* It is addressed to *Lord Cutts.*

From the manner in which Steele wrote, it is not surprizing that he should not rival Addison in the purity, correctness, and exquisite finishing of his pieces, and in all those graces of style with which the latter adorned his compositions: but in fertility of invention, and in faithful and humourous delineation of character, Steele is scarcely inferior; while in the higher department of the pathetic, in the language of passion and of the heart, he is evidently greater than Addison. It is much to be lamented that, among his other good qualities, Sir Richard did not number the worldly virtue of *discretion.* This was his *prima mali labes.* Fond of the social hour, and possessing every fascinating quality of conversation, he yielded his easy nature to the gaiety of the bottle; and often did he waste those nights in enlivening the society of his friends, which he should have consumed at the student's lamp, in the correction and improvement of his writings. Not only his compositions but his pocket suffered by this criminally amiable indulgence; and he consequently found himself "incurably necessitous." He evidently trusted for the bettering of his fortune to his political connections, and he had a right so to do: but, like all those who inlist under a faction without knavish intentions, he was most miserably disappointed. Although he was the fellow-labourer of Addison in their great literary services to the Whig interest; — although he displayed even more zeal and devotion to his party than his political assistant; — although by the publication of his *Crisis* he fought in the front of the battle, while Addison, Hoadly, and others, who were coadjutors in that work, were satisfied to shelter themselves behind the shield of his name; — although his intrepidity was rewarded with suffering*, and the wound which he received testified his courage; — yet Steele was neglected by his party; and four years after the accession of that family, for whose interest he laboured so much and so well, he was poor and unprotected. The Whigs acknowleged his services and forgot them; — they used him as an instrument, and then left him to the world; — they even added persecution to neglect, and deprived him of the Governorship of the Theatre, which place his literary eminence alone (it was sollicited for him by the company of comedians) had obtained for him. Steele felt the force of this ill-treatment from the Whigs, and he complains of it very bitterly in many of his letters to his wife. He thus writes in one of them: "I am talking to my wife, and therefore may speak my heart and the vanity of it.—I know, and you are witness, that I have served the Royal Family with an unreservedness due only to heaven, and I am now (I thank my brother Whigs) [*Addison was one of them*] not possessed of twenty shillings from the favour of the court." Vol. II. page 421. — In another, he says, "It gives my imagination the severest wound when I consider that she (*meaning one of his little children*) or any of my dear innocents, with nothing but their innocence to plead for them, should be exposed to that world which would not so much as repair the losses and sufferings of their poor father, after all his zeal and supererogatory service." Title page, 436.†—One of the *losses* to which he here alludes must have been the resignation of his place under the Tory administration, previously to the publication of his *Crisis*; and certainly this disinterested action, with which it is impossible not to be greatly struck, has imprinted a trait of magnanimity on his character which, as long as public virtue is respected, should never be worn out. It ought to be re-

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* It scarcely needs to be told that Steele was expelled the *House of Commons* for the publication of this pamphlet.

† The letter, of which this is an extract, was written while Addison was Secretary of State.

membered

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membered that Steele was at this period courted to familiarity by the accomplished Harley; and if self-love or private interest had been predominant in his bosom, he would have remained silent and preserved his place: but he thought that his country was in danger; and having determined not to hold any terms with those whom he considered as its enemies, he, with Roman virtue, seceded from dependence on the minister, and accompanied the resignation of his place with a letter which breathes so manly a spirit of independence that, though it has been often published before, we cannot in this place withhold it from our readers:

' *To the Earl of Oxford.*

' My Lord, ' Bloomsbury-square, June 4, 1713.

' I presume to give your Lordship this trouble, to acquaint you, that having an ambition to serve in the ensuing Parliament, I humbly desire your Lordship will please to accept of my resignation of my office as Commissioner of the Stamp Revenue.

' I should have done this sooner, but that I heard the Commission was passing without my name in it, and I would not be guilty of the arrogance of resigning what I could not hold. But, having heard this since contradicted, I am obliged to give it up, as with great humility I do by this present writing. Give me leave on this occasion to say something as to my late conduct with relation to the late men in power, and to assure you whatever I have done, said, or written has proceeded from no other motive, but the love of what I think truth. For merely as to my own affairs, I could not wish any man in the administration rather than yourself, who favour those that become your dependants with a greater liberality of heart than any man that I have ever before observed. When I had the honour of a short conversation with you, you were pleased not only to signify to me, that I should remain in this office, but to add, that if I would name to you one of more value, which would be more commodious to me, you would favour me in it. I am going out of any particular dependance on your Lordship; and will tell you with the freedom of an indifferent man, that it is impossible for any man who thinks, and has any public spirit, not to tremble at seeing his country, in its present circumstances, in the hands of so daring a genius as yours. If incidents should arise, that should place your own safety, and what ambitious men call greatness, in a balance against the general good, our all depends upon your choice under such a temptation. You have my hearty and fervent prayers to heaven, to avert all such dangers from you. I thank your Lordship for the regard and distinction which you have at sundry times shewed me; and wish you, with your country's safety, all happiness and prosperity. Share, my Lord, your good fortune with whom you will: while it lasts, you will want no friends; but, if any adverse day happens to you, and I live to see it, you will find I think myself obliged to be your friend and advocate. This is talking in a strange dialect from a private man to the first of a nation; but to desire only a little, exalts a man's condition to a level with those who want a great deal. But I beg your Lordship's pardon; and am with great respect, my Lord,

'Your Lordship's most obedient, and most humble servant,
'Rich. Steele.'

Such were the magnanimity, the fearless disregard of power, and the noble scorn of pelf, that distinguished the character of Steele. Besides this disinterestedness in politics, he was in private life good-natured, generous, and tender. His purse was always open to distress, while his fortune supplied him with the means of relieving it; and when adversity came on him, "he gave to misery all he had, a tear." In no tumult of public affairs, or turbulence of faction, did he forget his duties to his wife and children; and his letters to them in this collection display such an unaffected love and such a virtuous constancy, as ought to make modern fashionable husbands blush when they read these records of his affection. We must add to our quotations a few more of these letters to his wife, which are written in a negligent strain of exquisite fondness:

'My dearest Prue, 'March 26, 1717.

'I have received yours, wherein you give me the sensible affliction of letting me know of the continual pain in your head. I could not meet with necessary advice; but according to the description you give me, I am confident washing your head in cold water will cure you; I mean, having water poured on your head, and rubbed with an hand, from the crown of your head to the nape of your neck. When I lay in your place, and on your pillow, I assure you I fell into tears last night, to think that my charming little insolent might be then awake and in pain; and took it to be a sin to go to sleep.'

'Dear Prue, '[undated.]

'I am under much mortification from not having a letter from you yesterday: but will hope that the distance from the post, now you are at Blancorse, is the occasion.

'I love you with the most ardent affection, and very often run over little heats that have sometimes happened between us with tears in my eyes. I think no man living has so good, so discreet a woman to his wife as myself; and I thank you for the perseverance in urging me incessantly to have done with the herd of indigent unthankful people, who have made me neglect those who should have been my care from the first principle of charity.

'I have been very importunate for justice to the endeavours I have used to serve the publick; and hope I shall very soon have such reparation as will give me agreeable things to say to you at our meeting; which God grant to you and your most obsequious husband,

'Rich. Steele.'

'Dear Prue, 'May 22, 1717.

'Your son is now with me, very merry, in rags; which condition I am a going to better, for he shall have new things immediately. He is extremely pretty, and has his face sweetened with something of the Venus his mother, which is no small delight to the Vulcan who begot him. Ever your's, Rich. Steele.’

‘ Dear Prue, ‘ [undated.]

‘ If you knew how glad I am to see a long letter from you, I dare say, as fantastically shy as you are of doing any thing that should make your husband think you love him, you would oftener afford me that pleasure. When Jonathan answers my letters, I shall know what to do; but if I thought quite so ill of him as the rest of his relations do, I should wholly decline the thought of serving him. I never had any thought of making an expence at Carmarthen but on a fairer prospect than I ever yet saw.

‘ I have had abundance of reflection since we parted; and, in the future part of my life, you will find me a very reserved man, and clear of all hangers-on. I find by all the care and industry which a man uses for others, if they are beholden to your pocket, they are only ashamed they were obliged to you, and leave your interest. I shall therefore, hereafter make my expence upon my own way of living, and my own household and little family. Though my wife gives herself whimsical airs of saying, “ if she is unworthy, yet the children” — I say, though you talk of the children, if I will not mind you; I tell you — they are dear to me more that they are yours, than that they are mine: for which I know no reason, but that I am, in spite of your ladyship's coyness and particularities, utterly your's.

‘ Rich. Steele.’

‘ Dear Prue, ‘ June 20, 1717.

‘ I have yours of the 14th, and am infinitely obliged to you for the length of it. I do not know another whom I could commend for that circumstance; but, where we entirely love, the continuance of any thing they do to please us is a pleasure. As for your relations; once for all, pray take it for granted, that my regard and conduct towards all and singular of them shall be as you direct.

‘ I hope by the grace of God, to continue what you wish me, every way an honest man. My wife and my children are the objects that have wholly taken up my heart; and as I am not invited or encouraged in any thing which regards the publick, I am easy under that neglect or envy of my past actions, and cheerfully contract that diffusive spirit within the interests of my own family. You are the head of us; and I stoop to a female reign, as being naturally made the slave of beauty. But, to prepare for our manner of living when we are again together, give me leave to say, while I am here at leisure and come to lie at Chelsea, what I think may contribute to our better way of living. I very much approve Mrs. Evans and her husband; and, if you take my advice, I would have them have a being in our house, and Mrs. Clark the care and inspection of the nursery. I would have you entirely at leisure to pass your time with me, in diversions, in books, in entertainments, and no manner of business intrude upon us but at stated times: for though you are made to be the delight of my eyes, and food of all my senses and faculties, yet a turn of care and house-wifery, and I know not what prepossession against conversation pleasures, robs me of the witty and the handsome woman, to a degree not to be expressed. I will work my brains and fingers to procure us plenty of all things; and demand nothing of you but to take delight in agreeable dresses, cheerful discourses, and gay sights, attended by me. This may be done, by putting the kitchen and the nursery in the hands I propose; and I shall have nothing to do but to pass as much time at hôme as I possibly can, in the best company in the world. We cannot tell here what to think of the trial of my Lord Oxford; if the ministry are in earnest in that, and I should see it will be extended to a length of time, I will leave them to themselves, and wait upon you.

'Miss Moll grows a mighty beauty, and she shall be very prettily dressed, as likewise shall Betty and Eugene; and, if I throw away a little money in adorning my brats, I hope you will forgive me. They are, I thank God, all very well; and the charming form of their mother has tempered the likeness they bear to their rough sire; who is, with the greatest fondness,

'Your most obliged and most obedient husband, Rich. Steele.'

'Ten thousand times
'My dear, dear, pretty Prue, 'July 11, 1717.

'I have been in very great pain for having omitted writing last post. You know the unhappy gaiety of my temper when I have got in; and indeed I went into company without having writ before I left my house in the morning, which I will not do any more. It is impossible to guess at all the views of Courtiers; but, however, I am of opinion that the Earl of Oxford is not in so triumphant a way as his friends imagine. He is to be prosecuted by way of bill, or act of parliament, next session, in order to punish him according as he shall appear to deserve; and in the mean time, to be excepted out of the Act of Grace, which comes out next week.

'Please to take the advice you give me on this subject, and keep your conversation out of the dispute. Your letter has extremely pleased me with the gaiety of it; and, you may depend upon it, my ambition is now only turned towards keeping that up in you, and giving you reasons for it in all things about you. Two people who are entirely linked together in interest, in humour, and affection, may make this being very agreeable; the main thing is, to preserve always a disposition to please and be pleased. Now as to your Ladyship, when you think fit, to look at you, to hear you, to touch you, gives delight in a greater degree than any other creature can bestow; and indeed it is not virtue, but good-sense and wise choice, to be constant to you. You did well not to dwell upon one circumstance in your letter; for, when I am in good health, as I thank God I am at this present writing, it awakes wishes too warmly to be well borne when you are at so great a distance. I do not see any mention of your man Sam; I hope the doctor's prescription has been useful to him.

'Think, dream and wish for nothing but me; who make you a return in the same affection to you. For ever, Your most obsequious obedient husband, Rich. Steele.'

'Pray date your letters.'

We have now only to notice the celebrated friendship between Steele and Addison; and willingly would we draw a veil over the selfishness of the latter, were it not necessary that posterity should do justice to the former, and that as he did not receive the reward of his attachment during life, he should at least enjoy the heroism of it after his death. If that can be called *friendship* in which the affection appears to have existed almost entirely on one side, the connection between these two great men may be so denominated: but if we consider that Addison had it greatly in his power to serve, and did not serve, his *friend,*— that in the high office of Secretary of State he neglected the man whose labours, more than those of any other, contributed to effect that change of things which produced his own elevation,—that in the harshest mode he exacted payment of the bond which he held of Steele,—that afterward, in the character of the *Old Whig*, he contemptuously stigmatised the partner of his studies, his writings, and his life, as "*little Dicky, whose trade it was to write pamphlets,*"—and if we consider that Steele suffered this neglect and this ill-treatment without complaint or retort, it is impossible not to feel an increase of our admiration of the one, and a diminution of our high respect for the other. Addison patronized Tickell, because he did not fear him:—but he neglected Steele, because (must we say?) he knew that his genius would have rivalled his own, had his exertions been unclouded by all the embarrassments which poverty and its attendant anxiety threw over them.

As a politician, however, Steele had his faults. He was among the many whom, at this period, according to Swift, "party made mad;" and in the fury of his *mania,* he attributed opinions and doctrines to others which they never held. Although born in Ireland, too, he, unlike Swift, soon forgot the suffering and degraded place of his nativity; and having adopted another country, he made it both the theatre and the object of his actions. He imbibed an invincible hatred to the Stuart family and cause, for which no good Whig can be inclined to blame him: but what candid person can read his *Romish Ecclesiastical History of late Years,* and his *State of the Romish Catholic Religion throughout the World,* without lamenting that a man of such a head and such a heart should have incurred the hazard of repeating the common-place prejudices and absurd falsehoods which prevailed in his time, and which we have seen but too much countenanced in the present day?

Art. X. *Fragments, in Prose and Verse.* By Miss Elizabeth Smith, lately deceased: with some account of her Life and Character, by H. M Bowdler. A new Edition. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

Art. XI. *Memoirs of Frederick and Margaret Klopstock.* Translated from the German. By Miss Elizabeth Smith. A new Edition. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

"All excellence has a right to be recorded," said Johnson, with his usual strength of language; and we know not that we remember any instance in which that right could be more justly claimed than in the present. Yet we are far from being inclined to admire early prodigies of genius: such precocity generally ends in untimely barrenness; or if the fruit really answer the promise of the blossom, then, alas!

> " So wise, so young, they say do ne'er live long!"
>
> " *Is cadit ante senem, qui sapit ante diem.*"

It is impossible not to entertain some melancholy reflections of this kind on reading the interesting volumes before us: though, perchance, few employments of the mind are more salutary than such reflections; and we shall therefore not hesitate to dwell at some length on the character and attainments of Elizabeth Smith, the fair and youthful writer whom we are now called to commemorate, and over whose tomb we are unfortunately compelled to scatter those faded flowers, and that broken garland, which we should have been proud to have offered fresh and full of honour to her living brows.

We propose to abstract a brief account of this accomplished young lady from the different parts of the letters and memoirs submitted to our review; to select some passages, illustrative of her peculiar turn and temper of mind, from each of the volumes; and to leave our readers to draw those moral inferences from a survey of the life and qualities of this amiable being, which no application of ours could render more forcible than the attentive perusal of her simple story *.

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* Although curiosity may be gratified by the insertion of the names of Miss Smith's correspondents in the present edition of her Fragments, yet we cannot on the whole consider that edition as an improvement on the preceding. We are indeed rather more fully informed concerning her studies as well as her connections: but many frivolous circumstances are related which had better have been suppressed; and particularly at page 57. an anecdote is inserted which unseasonably mixes the ludicrous with the pathetic. The engraving prefixed to the first of these volumes, having been taken from a drawing made in the last illness of Miss Smith, cannot be supposed to present a favourable likeness of her countenance when in health.

Elizabeth

had an opportunity of observing the
ments, and saw her astonish every person ar
with which she acquired information on a
celled in every thing that she attempted. M
ing, and perspective, were then her chief p
that early age, her greatest pleasure seemed
which she would pursue with unwearied atte
hours, that her friends feared that such clo
injure her health. She was then well a
French and Italian languages, and had ma
gress in the study of geometry and some ot
mathematics. At every period of her life
fond of poetry. Writing to a friend in the
(that is, in the sixteenth year of her age,)
herself on the subject of some of her studies

'There are many things that I prefer to th
the head of them stands poetry. I thought som
tremely fine: Dante I have not read. At pres
an argument with my dear Miss Bowdler concern
port him against all other poets. You may easil
the better: but I will say all I can for Ossian,
poems beyond all others. Milton must stand alon
is in some respects superior to Homer. Can
equal to his descriptions of Nature, his address to
that to the moon in Darthula, and the last hym
joy of grief," and in night scenes, there is nothi
would rather read the description of one of his
Homer's gods. One of my greatest reasons f
that all his heroes are so *good*,' &c. &c. &c.

Allowing, however, for the natural admir
writer, which is so obser

nity of her favourite poets; and the natural consequence followed, — the frequent mistake of inflated prose for poetry, and the toleration of too many instances of bombast in Klopstock, Young, and other admired religious versifiers. The certain path to the approbation of the fair student was the display of pious feelings: hence her overstrained admiration of the Messiah of the German poet, and her idea that nothing in poetry equalled the sublimity of this and some similar compositions: hence also her laudable dedication of her talents to sacred literature; and that surprizing effort of her genius, among so many and such various exertions of its early powers, a translation of the book of Job. Taking this extraordinary work into consideration, (which it yet remains for us to do, in detail,) and the knowlege of the Hebrew language which it implies, together with her attainments in the Greek and Latin tongues, her almost self-acquired mastery of the French, Italian, and Spanish, her unusual proficiency in the German, and her extensive acquaintance with their best authors, we must admit Elizabeth Smith to have been one of those characters which occasionally appear on earth to manifest, as it were, the capacities of the human mind, when vigorously applied to worthy objects.

It is not, however, only in the intellectual excellence of this lady, that we can find proper materials for panegyric. Under some of the severest domestic calamities, she conducted herself with that becoming resignation which proved that the profit of her studies was much more than speculative. Indeed, the regulation of her heart seems to have been her constant employment; so that her unfeigned piety, and her admirable exercise of the social affections throughout all her intercourse with friends and relatives, mutually supported and adorned each other. This high praise is sufficiently warranted by the testimony of the volumes before us; and we proceed to establish it by quotation and reference.

We should do injustice to the good sense manifested in the general reflections of a moral nature, which have been extracted from the memoranda of this young lady, if we were to curtail them; and our limits forbid their complete insertion: but the following remarks, which were written at the end of the little book from which the reflections in question are chiefly transcribed, seem to us of so excellent a simplicity, that we should wrong the author by omitting them. They were composed in the twenty-second year of her life; at which early period, almost all the attainments which we have briefly commemorated had been achieved, and all the virtues which we have not too highly praised had been displayed. Many of these future be granted me ; to try to make amends by employing every moment I can command to s to endeavour to acquire all the little knowlege th capable of on earth ; but to let the word of God and all others subservient to it ; to model myself, according to the gospel of Christ ; to be content and when it is finished to rejoice, trusting in Redeemer. I have written these resolutions to against me, in case I should be inclined to forget to my former indolence and thoughtlessness, bec the inutility of mental determinations. May God to keep them !'

* That the expressions in the above quotati an ' endeavour to acquire all the little know nature is capable of on earth,' may not be presumptuous or vain tendency, by the most mators of the exact degree of female abilitie nice for our admeasurement or limitation, confess,) we subjoin some remarks of the fa will display her modest sense of her own clearer light :

' I find nothing so effectual in abating self-conc people who evidently have quite as high an opinio any given respect as I have, and to see that they is very possible I may be so too.'

' It is the fashion now to consider the abilities on an equality with those of men. I do not den be many women whose abilities, and still more the versation, are superior to those of the generality o never was among women a Milton, a Newton,' &c

' The more talents and good qualities we have

'The greatest misfortune in the world is to have more learning than good sense.'

We regret our inability to afford room for farther extracts of this nature. Some of our readers, perhaps, may think that such reflections are obvious, and of little value : but let it be remembered that they were not intended as a cheap display of common-place wisdom; they were the private guides of the writer's heart, understanding, and conduct; —and where shall we find better guides, assisted as these were by the most regular and rational discharge of every pious duty? The last sentence, frequently as it has been urged as a check on pedantry, cannot be too much valued : particularly, when the subject is the cultivation of the female mind, we shall remove the first objection of the barbarous adversaries to that cultivation, if we inculcate this maxim, that good sense is indeed sacrificed to learning when one feminine grace or accomplishment is neglected by the fair student. This was far from the case with the subject of these memoirs. Adorned by nature with a person as engaging as her talents were unusual, she suffered not her zeal for knowlege to absorb too much of her mind, nor the more serious duties of life to intrench on claims of minor consideration. In her character that harmony of all its qualities appears to have existed, which blended and balanced the whole into something as near perfection as our nature admits to be realized at present. No part unduly preponderated : yet the gentleness and retiring modesty of her disposition must assuredly have been her greatest charm; for, as Statius beautifully expresses the best sentiment of our nature,

"*Ingenium probitas, artemque modestia vincit.*"

We have stated it as our opinion that, in one acquired quality of mind, this extraordinary young person betrayed a deficiency : but whether her supposed want of a correct poetical taste arose from any natural inferiority in the powers of imagination, or from an injudicious direction of those powers in early youth, we have not the means of ascertaining. We think that the fact is established both by her compositions in verse and by her criticisms on poetry in general. The peculiar bent of her genius seems to have lain another way; and, although she had a fondness for such studies, yet, from whatever cause it may have arisen, she does not seem to us to have enjoyed (if enjoyment that can be called which is subject to the most certain mortifications,) a capacity for cultivating them to advantage. Perhaps we might address her again in the words of Statius, on this hackneyed subject :

That her judgment was most unusuall
of cultivation which is deemed by son
the female mind, the ensuing ext
That a young female should learn a lit
know, a shocking proposition to many
should attempt to question the justi
Locke ! will indeed be deemed prepo
parts, however, we become more enam
she speaks by the mouth of the Graces
our acquaintance by their best handmai

The editor prefixes these few words
we are about to extract : — ‘ I do not k
read Mr. Locke’s Essay on Human Unde
occasion to the following remarks, whic
modest allusion to her own inferiority to
were never I believe seen by any body till

“ *A fly found fault with one of the fine*

‘ Locke’s ideas on infinity appear to me t
ness. Perhaps the fault is in my own unders
unravel my thoughts on the subject, and see
lies.

‘ His manner of representing to himself in
certain known quantities, whether of space o
years ; and when tired with multiplication, h
less remainder. This, indeed, serves to be
idea of incomprehensible immensity ; the re
left, is a cloud that conceals the end : but so
there is *none*, the very idea of a remainder ca
end and when we have in thought passed thr
space or duration, we must

guishable, sensible things, and supposed to keep the same distance one from another;" only marks set up for our use while on earth, to help us to arrange things in our narrow understandings by shewing their relative situations, and not really existing in nature. This he forgets, and having granted that duration and expansion have parts, he applies his minutes and his inches to measure eternity and infinite space*. To prove the fallacy of this method, suppose 10,000 diameters of the earth to be some part, a 10th, or 10,000th part of infinite space; then infinite space is exactly 10 times or 10,000 times 10,000 diameters of the earth, and no more. Infinite space has certain bounds, which is a contradiction. There is no impropriety in taking a foot-rule to measure the ocean, because, multiplied a certain number of times, it will give the extent of the ocean; but no multiple of what is finite can ever produce infinity; for though number abstractedly be infinite, a series of numbers may go on continually increasing, yet no one of those numbers can express infinity, each being in itself a determined quantity. When in the beginning of a series, two are added together, each of those two must be circumscribed, consequently the whole circumscribed *ad infinitum.*— On the contrary, unity seems much more capable of expressing infinity; though we finite beings, incapable at present of comprehending it, can form but a vague and inadequate idea. Unity has no bounds; nor, as Mr. Locke says, any shadow of variety or composition; and to appeal at once to the highest authority, it is the sign that the great Creator has used as being the most proper to convey an idea of himself to our finite understandings.'

Whatever may be thought of the above speculation as a metaphysical exercise, certainly as a proof of the reasoning powers of the fair writer it is very creditable. The remarks which follow on Locke's account of the succession of our ideas, as the source of our notion of duration; on some passages of scripture, supposed to confirm the above opinions concerning infinity; on our uncertainty of the agreement of our ideas with the reality of things; and on the universal idea of a supreme Being, as ultimately derived from revelation; suggested as all these remarks are with the greatest diffidence, [illegible] unfolded with the acutest ingenuity, cannot fail of raising [illegible] the mind of the reader, high admiration of the intellect [illegible] which they proceeded.

It is impossible, within our limits, even to enumerate [illegible] subjects on which Miss Smith had exerted her judgment [illegible] written some observations, in her brief but most r[illegible] extensive course of study. We must indeed now att[illegible] and enlightened spirit will find itself more at home, than in this land of shadows,' &c. &c.

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* The fair author herself seems to forget that Locke s[illegible] we have thus measured as much as we can of space and dura[illegible] [illegible] remains intelligible in our ideas of either is the endless addition of number.

For the purpose of obviating the principal objection (which we are too well aware is likely to be made) to so many and such varied attainments in a female, we beg leave to subjoin, at the risque of some violation of arrangement, an extract from another letter in this volume. A waste of time, in idle if not in pernicious amusements, is assuredly one of the sins which most easily beset us. The interrupted and comparatively rare exertions of industry, which the generality of human beings display, are insufficient indeed to the acquirement of any great portion of knowlege: but a mind like that of Miss Smith, imbued with a deep sense of the value of every fleeting moment, will make a progress in all studies to which it may chuse to apply itself, that is inconceivable by the careless and the dissipated. It was this noble principle, originating from the conviction of the continual watchfulness of the Deity over the actions of his creatures, that induced this excellent young woman to devote the whole of her short life to purposes of improvement. Moreover, as we have premised, she did not limit her ideas of necessary duties to those only of a higher order. She well knew, as she admirably expresses it, that 'to be good and disagreeable is high treason against virtue.'

> 'It is astonishing,' says the writer of the letter to which we have alluded, 'how she found time for all she acquired, and all she accomplished. Nothing was neglected: there was a scrupulous attention to all the minutiæ of her sex: for her well-regulated mind, far from despising them, considered them as a part of that system of perfection at which she aimed; an aim which was not the result of vanity, nor to attract the applause of the world. No human being ever sought it less, or was more entirely free from conceit of every kind. The approbation of God and of her own conscience were the only rewards she ever sought.'

When to these testimonies we add a final extract from the book of private remarks which we have already cited, we trust that we shall have obviated (as far as the present example goes) the too prevailing prejudice against the application of the female mind to severer studies than those which ordinarily form a part of the education of women. — Miss Smith observes;

> 'It is not learning that is disliked in women, but the ignorance and vanity which generally accompany it. A woman's learning is like the fine cloaths of an upstart, who is anxious to exhibit to all the world the riches so unexpectedly acquired. The learning of a

man on the contrary, is like hereditary rank, which having grown up with him, and being in a manner interwoven with his nature, he is almost unconscious of possessing it. The reason of this difference is the scarcity of the commodity among females, which makes every one who possesses a little, fancy herself a prodigy. As the sum total increases, we may reasonably hope that each will become able to bear her share with a better grace.'

We shall say but little of the second of these publications, or the second volume of the new and collected edition of Miss S.'s works. It consists of translations from the German, with the exception of a few pages, and a short preface. The substance of the book comprises memoirs of Klopstock, as communicated by Dr. Mumssen of Altona, and other sufficient authorities. "The Milton of Germany," as Klopstock has been called, was born in Quedlinburg on the 2d of July, 1724, and died at Hamburg on the 14th of March 1803, in the 80th year of his age. Besides a considerable collection of letters between the poet and his friends, which certainly tend to make us more acquainted with the author of the *Messiah* than any previous publication, we have in this volume the very interesting letters of his first wife; some of whose correspondence attracted so much attention, from the natural and tender simplicity of her style, in a work which has been edited by Mrs. Barbauld *. In the book before us, we have a tolerably full account of Margaretta Klopstock, who seems to have been a very accomplished woman, and in all respects worthy of her husband. After the model of Mrs. Rowe, she composed some imaginary letters from the dead to the living; and we fully agree with their present editor that they greatly excel their original: but it is time to recall the attention of our readers to the principal subject of this article, and to conclude our survey of the character of Elizabeth Smith with some selections from her poetical translations of Klopstock's minor compositions. These specimens are introduced by the following observations from Miss Smith:

'I venture to offer a few remarks to obviate some objections which I know will be made to the translations of those odes of Klopstock which appear in this work. It will be said they are rough. I grant it; but let it be remembered that my aim has not been to make finished English odes, but to give to the English Reader, as far as lay in my power, an idea of Klopstock's odes. Klopstock himself is rough †; not because he was ignorant of the powers of harmony, for he studied that, and brought the German language to a pitch of excellence it had never before attained; but he is rough, because his subjects in general are such as do not admit of polished versification. They are sublime, wild, often unconnected, except by some thin thread of the poet's fancy, which every reader will not catch. The merit of the odes consists in the depth of thought, the conciseness of expression, the loftiness of the ideas; their character throughout is energy and strength. And shall these magnificent poems be tortured into our dull tune of ten syllables, because the English ear is so accustomed to it, that it is become a sort of national lullaby? Shall a noble thought be dragged out into weakness, to fill up a drawling line? Shall the expression be totally lost to make a jingle at the end? — Klopstock had an aversion to rhyme.'

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* The Correspondence of Richardson.

† 'As I am informed that the truth of this assertion may justly be disputed, I beg leave to observe that Miss Smith was self-taught, and

The consequence of this aversion in the original writer, and of the preceding sentiments in the translator of these odes, is, we think, sufficiently manifest: but our readers shall judge of the merits of these *sublime* poems, in their English dress:

' *To Ebert.*

' A dread idea, Ebert! from the cheerful board
Drives me to deepest gloom:
In vain thou bids't me o'er the care-dispelling glass
To cherish cheerful thoughts:
I must away and weep.—Perhaps these soothing tears
May wash away my woe.
O soothing tears! by Nature wisely were ye giv'n
To attend on human grief.
Were it not so,—could man not weep his misery,
How would he bear it then?
I must away and weep,—my agonizing thought
Yet powerful strives within me.
Ebert! suppose them now all gone—the sacred grave
O'erwhelming all our friends,
And we two lonely ones—we only left of all—
Art thou not speechless, Ebert?'——

* * * * * *

' In silent night the vision of the dead pass'd by—
I saw our friends all pass—
And oh! in silent night I saw the open graves,
I saw the immortal host!
When tender Giesecke's eye shall smile on me no more,
When far from Radichen

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and little accustomed to hear the German language either read or spoken, though she understood it remarkably well. Her enthusiastic admiration of Klopstock was not diminished by her supposing him occasionally deficient in what she always considered as by no means essential to the composition of sublime and animated poetry.' *Editor.*

Our upright Cramer pines—when Gartner, Rabener's tongue,
No more Socratic speaks—
In the harmonious life of noble-minded Gellert
When every string is hushed—
Beyond the grave when open-hearted Rothe
Seeks the companions of his joy—
When lively Schlegel from a longer exile
To no friend writes again—
When in my dearest Schmidt's embrace my eye no more
Weeps tears of tenderness—
When with our fathers Hagedorn is laid to rest,
Ebert, what are we then?'

The following thought, extracted from an ode by Klopstock to his friend Bodmer, is certainly striking: but might not a choicer expression, and a still more harmonious versification, without any diminution of its spirit, have greatly enhanced its tenderness?

'Alas! they find not one the other, they
Who for each other, and for love were made:
Now in far distant climes their lot is cast,
And now long ages roll their course between.
Ne'er did my eye behold thee, Addison!
Ne'er did my ear learn wisdom from thy lips.'

Miss Smith has borrowed this idea in a poem of her own, addressed to the shade of Klopstock:

'Thus, blessed Spirit! ran thy deep complaint;
In all things else to Heaven's high will resign'd,
This only seem'd too hard:—and hard indeed
It is, that time and space should intervene
To part those souls by their Creator's hand
Attun'd to concord,'—&c.

We shall conclude with one other short poem; prefixing only this observation, that such compositions appear to us to be rather the materials of poetry than poetry itself. They partake (to borrow the language of the great Father of criticism) of the μυθος, ηθη, and διανοια, but are totally destitute of the λεξις, and μελοποια, if we may confine the meaning of the latter phrase. They *may* describe manners and sentiments; they *may* detail a story: but they have little or nothing to do with poetical expression or musical cadence: so that at the best they can be but imperfect performances, but rough and unhewn diamonds, devoid of setting and every proper ornament;—and perhaps they may best be designated by what they best deserve, some ludicrous character like the following, which we affix to them as an appropriate motto:

"*Quæ sequitur manca est casu numeroque Propago.*"

'*The Band of Roses.*

'I found her sleeping in the shade,
I bound her with a band of roses,
She felt it not, but slumber'd still.

'I gazed on her;—my life then hung
On her life, with that look, for ever!
I felt it deeply, but I could not speak.

'I whisper'd softly, but she did not hear;
I gently shook the band of roses;
Then from her slumber she awoke.

'She gazed on me; her life then hung
On my life, with that look, for ever;
And round us was Elysium.'

Art. XII. *Scloppetaria:* or Considerations on the Nature and Use of Rifled Barrel Guns, with reference to their forming the Basis of a permanent System of national Defence, agreeable to the Genius of the Country. By a Corporal of Riflemen. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Egerton.

When the rank of a *Corporal* is considered, and the very scanty education possessed by those who generally fill that lowest of all steps above the station of a private soldier, it may surprize our readers that we introduce to them the literary production of a person who bears this designation; and still more when they are told that it is a production which manifests both classical and scientific acquirements. A moment's reflection, however, will doubtless suggest to them, as it has excited in us, the conclusion that this 'Corporal of Riflemen' is one of those gentlemen whom the love of their country, in a season of alarm, has induced to form themselves into corps of armed volunteers for its defence; and we should be glad if we more frequently met with instances to prove that they have devoted hours of *study*, as well as hours of *practice*, to the advancement of their laudable object.

The author of this performance writes with modesty, and at the same time like a person who is well acquainted with the use and application of rifled barrel pieces. His work itself consists of an introduction of 48 pages and nine chapters, of which the materials are methodically arranged. The 1st of these relates to projectiles in general; the 2d to the objects of the rifle in particular; the 3d to the theory of spiral motion; the 4th to the minor qualities of the rifle; the 5th gives the history of it; and the 6th, its construction and perfections as connected with the spiral groove, the browning of the barrel, the th ent plug or breach, the touch-hole, the lock, the sights, a e ramrod: the 7th refers to what the writer calls the appendages of the rifle, under which appellation he comprehends the gunpowder used in firing it, the balls, the patch and stopple, and the target: the 8th treats of the mode of using it with steadiness of the nerves in shooting, in loading, and in taking aim, and on cleaning it; and the 9th consists of general hints relative to emulative distinctions, precautions before a match at shooting, and the dress of riflemen; together with a conclusion, or general application of the observations and matter a

In th with a number of historical and experim any useful and sensible remarks on milit or gives the history of the long bow, w vourite weapon of the English, and to w their victories; with an enumeration o arliament passed for the encouragem ve monarchs, from the statute of Wi Edward I. down to the 9th of Charles I. unpowder, and the consequent manufacture and use of fire-arms, have totally superseded archery; though it must be acknowleged that, in various situations, bows and arrows would be more efficacious and destructive than muskets; as for instance in covered casemates and casemated galleries, which are frequently made in the saliant angles of the covert-way immediately behind the counter-scarp wall, as in the new works round Portsmouth-common and the Dock-yard, &c. &c.: for such works, when fire-arms are employed in them, soon become in a great measure useless for the purposes of defence by the smoke arising from the inflammation of the powder.

The principal objections to the use of rifled barrel guns instead of common muskets are these:

1st, That the making of them is attended with much more expence.

2dly, That a rifle requires at least thrice as much time for loading it as a common musket takes, a circumstance which renders it unfit for the rapidity of battle.

And lastly, That in close action, where exactness in firing is not necessary, it becomes in a great measure useless.

As to the first of these objections, a considerable part of the additional cost is occasioned by exterior ornament, which might properly be omitted. If, on the other hand, we take into account the great additional quantity of ammunition requisite for enabling a musket to produce the same effect with a rifle, and the inconvenience and expence attending the transportation of that ammunition to places abroad, or at a distance, the balance perhaps, even in the article of expenditure, is in favour of the rifle-barrelled gun.

With regard to its requiring at least thrice as much time for loading as a common musket, we may observe that were the method introduced which was proposed by the ingenious Mr. Benjamin Robins, of loading such pieces at the breech, this difficulty would be in a great measure obviated.

The third objection falls to the ground when it is only considered that, in close action, all sorts of firing are in fact impracticable, without danger to those who attempt to make use of it: but why may not a bayonet or short lance be so adapted to a rifled gun, as to render the rifle-man in close combat as serviceable as a musketeer? Not only rifle-corps and marksmen, but bodies of troops acting with the *armes blanches* alone, might be employed to great advantage in defending so very inclosed a country as England, through which no columns of infantry can penetrate without breaking, and exposing their flanks almost every instant.

The author's observations beginning at p. 20. and ending at p. 29. merit the attentive perusal of military men. He does not, however, seem to know (or not to recollect) that the Romans, in the best times of their government, and when their military arrangements and discipline were in their greatest perfection, employed neither *Sagittarii* nor *Funditores*.

Although we regard the foregoing observations of the author of this performance, respecting the uses and application of the Rifle in different circumstances, as judicious and well-intitled to attention, we can by no means approve of his theory of rotatory (which he calls spiral) motion, and which is by far the most essential part of the work, since the rest of it refers to minor considerations and matters of detail. — The principal and indeed the only object of the rifle is to prevent the deflection of the ball to the right or left, from the vertical plane in which is the original direction of its flight; and this object is effected by communicating to it a circular or rotatory motion round an axis coinciding with that of the bore of the piece in its progress from the breech to the muzzle, which motion is thus continued after it leaves the barrel during the whole of its projectile motion, which commonly lasts but for a few seconds.

Before the communication of the ingenious Mr. Benjamin Robins's short paper "On the nature and advantages of Rifled-barrel Pieces" was read before the Royal Society, on the 2d July 1747, the circumstance of being able to fire by means of them at marks, with much greater certainty and success than with ordinary pieces, and even at three or four times the distance, was ascribed to the following groundless and imaginary causes, instead of the true reason, which arises solely from preventing the deflection of the bullet :

1st, That the ball, being forcibly driven or rammed down into the barrel, did by its resistance and additional friction occasion a completer inflammation of the powder, and thus receive a greater impulse than it would have from the same charge in a common piece.

2dly, That in consequence of the combination of its circular or revolving with its projectile motion, it did, as it were, bore the air, and by doing so fly to a much greater distance than it otherwise would have reached.

Lastly, That, by means of the same boring motion, it made its way much more easily into all solid bodies, and penetrated deeper into them, than it would if fired in the usual manner.

The second of these supposed causes is very properly combated in the work now before us : but the fallacy and absurdity of all the three have been fully and satisfactorily exposed by Mr. Robins in the above-mentioned paper. The present author, however, calls in question the correctness of the principle laid down by Mr. Robins, namely, that whatever tends to diminish the friction in rifled barrel guns tends at the same time to render them more complete ; and that, the more easily the bullet moves in the piece, provided it be just sufficiently pressed by the rifle to give it a rotatory motion and prevent it from shifting its place, the greater will be both its initial velocity and the accuracy of its flight :

> ' With respect, however, to the second theory stated, in explanation of the primary generation and continuation of the spinning, as arising from the sweep the ball is obliged to take in passing through the barrel, it may be said, that it certainly might hold good at short distances, where the resistance of the air would not yet have had time to check the impulse of the powder, or to retard the " comparatively" trifling degree of twist the ball may possibly get, in the way that they describe : but the only fair way of settling the question, is not to take the guns, at a distance, where even plain barrels frequently throw very tolerably, (by reason of the angle of aberration's being, from the shortness of the perpendicular, comparatively small,) but let the distance be 200 or 300 yards, and then, such as are desirous of trying the difference, *actually*, between a ball grooved, and a ball ungrooved, either from Rifles, (by the interposition of a very thick patch, and using a very small ball in one instance, and vice versâ in the other,) or from a *rifled*, against a *plain* barrel, will have an opportunity of receiving proof of the insufficiency of their theory. That it would hold good, were the atmosphere in which we fire a *vacuum*, or were the *resistance* of the air to be estimated at nothing,

we will readily admit: but as neither of the propositions are likely to be insisted on, perhaps a theory founded on the FACTS, as we have related them, will be deemed more acceptable, than mere speculative reasonings.'

This passage betrays a great want of perspicuity arising from a confusion of ideas. Its meaning, however, seems to be this, that the continuation of the whirling or spinning motion of the ball, during its flight, is not occasioned by the primary generation of it in the piece itself, but, without actual *indentations* on the zone of the bullet, lasts only to short distances, at which the resistance of the air has not had time 'to check the impulse of the powder, or to retard the *comparatively* trifling degree of twist,' which it may have acquired in following the sweep of the grooves or rifles in passing along the bore without being sensibly indented. Now this doctrine is inconsistent with reason and with experience; for if a leaden bullet, in passing along a rifled barrel, meets with barely friction sufficient to make it follow the gentle winding of the grooves or rifles, or if it be cast with small knobs on it to fit the grooves so as to enable it to follow them with scarcely any friction, both its projectile velocity and its rotatory motion on leaving the muzzle of the piece will be greater than they would be were it rammed home with difficulty, and by means of repeated strokes of a mallet. The resistance of a bullet so forcibly driven down, in passing along the grooves, must bear a considerable proportion to the impulsive or propelling force of the charge; and it has been incontrovertibly ascertained by repeated experiments, that the initial velocities of bullets fired from rifled pieces are in reality less than those of balls of the same diameters fired from common pieces, with the same charges of powder. Now it is evident, that the quicker a ball moves along any barrel which communicates to it a rotatory motion, the quicker also will be the rotation; and it is equally manifest that one which has not its sphericity injured, by being forcibly driven into a piece, will meet with less resistance from the air in the direction of its rotation, than one that is defaced and indented, and of course will (*cæteris paribus*) continue its whirling or circular motion longer. The author (in page 58.) readily admits that the spinning of the bullet would continue in consequence of its primary generation in the piece, 'were the atmosphere in which we fire a *vacuum*.' Had he used the words, "were the projection made *in vacuo* instead of in the atmosphere," they would have been more appropriate, because it is impossible for any atmosphere to be a vacuum: but having no wish to find fault with his diction, we shall barely observe on this point that a projection made *in vacuo*, with a defaced and indented ball, would be much more in favour of the continuance of its rotation than one made in the atmosphere, since the air must occasion a considerable resistance to the rotation, and in a direction opposite to it, by acting against one side of every indent.

At p. 59. the author assumes two data, and, reasoning on them, delivers his theory of spiral motion; by which he means the theory of the whirling or circular motion of balls fired from rifled barrels:

'Let it be assumed then, *first,* that it matters not, whether you have a light body moving with a great, or a heavy body with a small velocity; as the velocity multiplied into the weight, giving the same momentum, the effect will be the same. And *secondly,* that all powers acting on bodies, in an angle oblique to the axis of their motion, part of the effect will be to drive the body back, and part to push it on one side; and that this effect will be varied, in proportion as that angle of inclination is increased or diminished. On these two postulata, then, it is intended to explain the cause of the spinning of rifled balls; prefacing, however, that no balls can be properly called RIFLED, but such as have *actually* the *rifles* of the barrel more or less *impressed and indented on their surface.*

'It matters not then, according to data, No 1, whether the air be made to move against the ball, or the ball against the air, on the supposition, that *velocity* in either case will compensate for the want of density in the resisting medium, *air.* That air does increase its resistance, (which is tantamount to an increased density) in proportion to the velocity of the projectile, is certain: for it has been proved by experiment, that, to a velocity which is double another, (within certain limits, beyond which the rule again admits of modification) the resistance is four-fold, to a velocity treble that of another nine-fold; that is, the resistance increases as the squares of the velocity.

'In looking at a wind-mill, we see its sails whirled round, and yet there is nothing to give the primary rotatory motion. Whence then does it derive that self-acting power? On examination, it will be found, that the sails are not set at right angles with the axis, but are as it were thrown back, somewhat approaching to a very feint spiral, so that the edge of the sail may be said to represent (roughly) the spiral direction of the channels of a rifled barrel. On first turning the head of the axis direct in the wind's eye, the sails, without any foreign or artificial assistance, (saving the wind) contract gradually and slowly a motion round the axis, and which motion is, after a few revolutions, considerably accelerated, but always in a direction, at right angles with the course of the wind. Now in this case, the whole force of the wind is exerted in the first instance, to overturn the mill, or bend back the sails, and which would be the case, were it not for the spiral direction, or twist, given to the edge of the sails. Because the wind not only exerts its pressure on the sails, in a direction parallel to the axis, but presses also laterally; the consequence of which is, that as the wind is unable to turn the mill over, or break the sails, it obliges the latter to recede before it, in that direction in which the friction is least. And hence it is, that by means of setting the edges a little on the curve, or spiral, the wind is made to act in a direction totally opposite to that in which it is travelling, and to generate a motion by the bevelled surface over which it is constrained to pass in its escape. The same effect is produced in the common smoke-jack.

'But, on the other hand, on looking at an arrow or a shuttlecock flying through the air, do not they spin equally with the windmill? True; but whereas in the case of the mill, the effect is produced by the action of the wind, moving against the oblique surface of the sails; so, in the latter example, the same effect is produced by causing the body to be turned, to move against the wind; which acts against the oblique sides of the feathers of the arrow and the shuttlecock, as undeviatingly, as when exerted against the sails of the mill which are stationary. But to use a more general exemplification, reference may be had to a toy, at present in common use with children: in proportion to the speed with which the person holding the sails walks or runs, will the motion be quicker or slower? This then is exactly the windmill reversed.

'Let us then suppose, that a ball be fired from a rifled barrel piece, having on its surface, (i. e. on its zone) each rib or rifle duly impressed. The moment the ball quits the barrel, it becomes free of friction or restraint, excepting what is produced by the air. As it proceeds, the air is of course considerably compressed before it, and in its escape is obliged to pass partly down all the channels, distributed round the ball's zone; and hence then it follows that this artificial current, while rushing down the indentations, will give the same kind of lateral pressure as we have seen in the case of the windmill, the arrow, and the shuttlecock, because the direction of the grooves are at an angle, and not parallel with the direction in which the ball strikes the air, (postulate 2.) Thus then it will seem certain, that so long as the ball has any progressive motion at all, it cannot fail to compress the air before it, and the air so compressed will act constantly, as a power to turn the ball round and round. We think therefore, we may safely say, that so long as the ball has progressive, it cannot fail to have lateral motion also; and that the latter will ever be dependant on the former, because the ratios are of necessity equal. We then consider the spiral grooves of the barrel as of no further utility, with respect to the *generating* of the rotatory motion, than as an easy and expeditious way of giving the ball the requisite indentations, in order that the impulse of the powder, and the re-action of the elastic medium, *air*, may together produce and continue through the means of those grooves the whirling motion.

'The chief objection urged against the theory of spinning, founded on the action of the air on the oblique indents on the ball's zone, is, that the impression made is so short, that it can have no effect from its *obliquity*, for, say the cavillers, on looking at the indent of the ball, "This is not oblique, it is straight."

The first datum, namely, 'that it matters not whether you have a light body moving with a great, or a heavy body with a small velocity,' although it be true that the velocity multiplied by the weight gives the momentum, is not applicable to projectiles in the atmosphere, because the law of the air's resistance to bodies moving in it has never yet been correctly ascertained; being neither in the ratio of the velocity nor in the duplicate ratio of it, but undergoing various modifications according to the different degrees of velocity themselves. Besides, were it accurately known, its resistance to bodies would not be as their *momenta;* for were we to suppose two balls, of the same specific gravities, but different diameters, and in course of different absolute weights, to move in it with one and the same velocity, the resistances which they would experience from it would be as their surfaces, or as the squares of their diameters: whereas their momenta, the velocity being given, would be as their weights, or as the cubes of these diameters. The author's introduction of the windmill is therefore an unfortunate illustration; since the action of the wind on large and extended surfaces like the sails of a mill, placed somewhat obliquely to the axis, in pressing forcibly along that obliquity and thus generating a circular motion, and by the continuance of its pressure increasing that motion till it reaches a maximum, bears no analogy whatever to the action of the wind passing along small, short, and almost straight indents on the zone of a leaden bullet.

It is here stated that the diameter of one of the balls used with English rifles is six tenths of an inch. The length of each indent, then, cannot reasonably be supposed to exceed half the diameter of the ball, or three-tenths of an inch, unless it be very deep indeed. The circumference corresponding to the diameter .6 is 1.885 nearly, somewhat less than two inches. Supposing, then, with the author, the length of the barrel to be 30 inches, and that the grooves or rifles in it make half a twist or turn from the breech to the muzzle, we shall have each rifle or groove in the whole length of the bore depart from a straight line by about 0.9425 of an inch: but call it one inch: then we shall have 30 (the length of the barrel) to 1 as 0.3 (the length of the indent) to 0.01, the hundredth part of an inch, for the whole departure of each indent on the zone of the bullet. Hence it is manifest that the resistance of the air, in consequence of the indents, to the rotation, is beyond all comparison greater than any force that it can have by passing along them to continue it.

We are at a loss to understand what Professor Dalby could have in view by furnishing, or the author in requiring, the illustration given by means of the male and female screw; since every one knows that the male screw, in either descending or ascending in the female one, moves in the course of one revolution through a distance equal to that between two of the threads in the direction of the axis. This fact, however, has no more connection with the rotation of a bullet after it leaves the mouth of a rifle piece, than it has with the lunar theory.

The author has taken much trouble to establish the maxim, as he calls it, ' that whatever be the twist of the barrel, a ball fired from it will invariably spin so much round during its flight through a space equal to the length of the barrel, as the barrel itself is inclined as to its spiral channels in its own length.' This maxim, however, is erroneous, since the resistance to the projectile is much greater in proportion than to the rotatory motion; and the ball by no means passes through equal parts of the course which it describes, in equal times. The statement can only hold good on the supposition that the same ratio, or proportion, which exists between the projectile and the circular motion of the bullet in the piece itself, continues during the whole time of its flight; which is a supposition, however, that cannot be made, because no good reason can be assigned for it, and many may be adduced in opposition to it.

In page 63. the author says that ' he considers the spiral grooves of the barrel as of no further utility, with respect to the generating of the rotatory motion, than as an easy and expeditious way of giving the ball the requisite indentations, in order that the impulse of the powder and the re-action of the air may together produce and continue through the means of those grooves the whirling motion.' This sentence certainly manifests an uncommon degree of wildness of conception, in regard to the subject of rotatory motion. The re-action of the air has no share whatever in producing it, since it is forcibly produced in the barrel itself by the action of the ignited powder; and the ball cannot indeed move along the bore without acquiring it. We have already shewn that the indentations must tend greatly to retard and diminish the rotation instead of promoting it. That the author's theory is totally erroneous, because balls may continue their whirling motion during their flight without any indentations on their surface, is established beyond the possibility of contradiction by a set of experiments made by some gentlemen many years ago, in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, with a rifle field-piece cast at Carron for the purpose; to which was adapted a quadrant, with a telescope, cross wires, &c. Such a quadrant is equally applicable to any gun of a similar construction, of whatever size or calibre. The line of collimation of the telescope being once adjusted, so as to be truly parallel to the axis of that or any other such gun, when the quadrant is set at o degrees; if the quadrant be afterward set to any degree of elevation, and the gun be moved so as to bring the intersection of the cross-wires on the object to be fired at, the bore of the gun will then have the same elevation above it, and the plane passing through its axis will be parallel to that which passes through the axis of the telescope, in whatever position the carriage of the gun happens to stand.—This description will serve to give a general idea of the piece, which was used. The leaden balls were cast so as to suit the bore, with small knobs or protuberances on them, to fit the rifles exactly, but so as easily to be moved along the inside of the piece, and with scarcely any friction. The faces which were sent home to the breech of the gun were all numbered; and of upwards of forty of them fired to the distance of 1500 feet, not one had shifted its face, the numbered sides being all entire, and the opposite sides considerably bruised and deformed. Their departure at that distance from the plane passing through the centre of the telescope, and that of the mark on the canvas seen through it, did not exceed, when greatest, one foot and an half, or two feet, (which might easily have been occasioned by a very minute change in the position of the quadrant,) except on one morning, when the wind blew hard, and sent the bullet to the distance of about a yard from that plane. It is also a circumstance worthy of particular attention, that each bullet retained the whirling motion which it received from the rifles during the whole course of its flight; for the bruised face of each was twisted in such a way, in entering the ground, as put this fact beyond all doubt.

In here closing our remarks on this work, we must not omit to add our willing testimony, that it is extremely creditable to the ingenuity, the study, and the patriotism of the author.—Twelve plates accompany the volume.

ART. XIII. *Fourth Report of the Directors of the African Institution,* read at the Annual General Meeting on the 28th of March, 1810. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

AFRICA has long been a melancholy subject. The geographer contemplates its immense continent as a grand feature of the creation, but to the philosopher, who estimates the blessings of civilization and mental improvement, it presents a very insignificant figure. The inhabitants of no quarter of the globe have been more unjustly vilified and ill-treated. In order to extenuate measures involving the blackest crimes, interested traders have first endeavoured to degrade the poor African below the rest of his species, and have then pleaded the demands of our sugar colonies * as a reason for forcibly dragging him from his native groves, to waste a wretched existence in galling bondage. How dishonourable to professing Christians has been this trade in human blood! Thanks to the humane and undaunted Clarkson, and to his noble coadjutors, the traffic is at last prohibited by the British legislature; and his name deserves to be deeply engraven on the great pyramid, that for ages to come the African race may read it, and do honour to the virtues of their great advocate and benefactor. — Without the abolition of the slave trade, the civilization and internal improvement of Africa could never proceed. If the enlightened inhabitants of Europe visited her shores only for the sake of fomenting wars among her tribes, and of thinning its population by the most nefarious of all traffics, Africans could never think of recognizing Europeans as friends, nor entertain any respect for the religion of men more savage in heart than themselves: but by the check which this trade has received, in consequence of the edicts of the British legislature, it may be hoped that the Negro race will regard the European in a more favourable light, and that the views of both will be directed to their mutual benefit, not to their mutual annoyance.

It is justly remarked in the beginning of this Report, 'that without entire security of person and property, no adequate stimulus can be given to industry; and consequently, that no progress in the great work of civilization can fairly be expected. And it is most obvious, that while a considerable slave trade is suffered to exist, such security is unattainable.' Impressed with this conviction, the authors of the Report, while they are actively engaged in undertakings for the benefit of the millions who wander through the extensive regions of Africa, lament that their purposes are still frustrated to a certain extent by the refusal of foreign states to follow the laudable example of Great Britain, and (O! shameful to relate,) by the clandestine proceedings of some of our own merchants. 'It has been discovered, that in defiance of all penalties imposed by act of parliament, vessels under foreign flags have been fitted out in the ports of Liverpool and London, for the purpose of carrying slaves from the coast of Africa to the Spanish and Portuguese settlements in America; and that several adventures of this description have actually been completed.' The proceedings

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* Why not encourage the Africans to grow sugar in their own country, for which it is well adapted?

ings f the Directors, in putting a stop to these gross violations of the w, are highly to their honour, and we hope that their vigilance will be crowned with the most complete success. It is probable, however, that some time will elapse before this horrible trade is quite suppressed; for though the American government has followed us in the measure of abolition, it is confessed that 'America has few or no means of enforcing her own edicts;' so that while the cupidity of her merchants remains unrestrained by principles of humanity, slave ships will contin [illegible] Atlantic. Yet, notwithstanding the clouds [illegible] onally darken the horizon, the African he [illegible] righten; and it is some consolation to re [illegible] nati [illegible] which participated most largely in this tr [illegible] has [illegible] n the first to repent of her sins, stands fo [illegible] ssin [illegible] e injury which she has inflicted, and has th [illegible] erful [illegible] ns of enforcing her resolutions. Our colon [illegible] coast [illegible] Africa, and all our missions to that conti [illegible] a frien [illegible] aspect to the inhabitants; and if an agr [illegible] e ma [illegible] between Great Britain and the United States [illegible] America, [illegible] each power shall be allowed to enforce by means of naval capture the abolition-laws of the other, the navy of Great Britain on the African station would soon make the slave-traffic a hazardous adventure to the American. The Directors are inclined to count on the concurrence of the United States with us, provided that the two countries continue in a state of amity; and on the whole it may be presumed that the trade to Africa for slaves will, at no distance of time, be in a great measure if not totally abolished.

Now this circumstance will open a new æra for Africa. At present, our knowlege of that immense continent is confined to the coast, and even here we have hitherto effected little towards sowing the seeds of civilization and improvement. How much is to be done! What a vast task has the African Institution undertaken! Yet its members are full of hope; and if they proceed slowly and cautiously, much may be accomplished. When the African is delivered from the dread of being kidnapped and sold into slavery, when he feels his security, is taught the value of industry in improving his native soil, and is assisted in obtaining the necessaries and the comforts of life, civilization will make a rapid progress: then he will be prepared for the lessons of the Christian religion; then he will rise to the dignity of a rational being, and all the noblest physiognomies of man will be displayed. When the African knows and feels his obligations to Europeans, their travels into the interior will be encouraged and protected; trade and commerce will have an unlimited range; in future, the visits of British merchants

chants to Tombuctoo and Kassina may be frequent; and the geography and natural history of the interior of Africa may be as well known as those of Hindoostan.

Instead, however, of indulging in poetic anticipations, let us return to the matter-of-fact-report of the pamphlet before us. Here we find that by the capture of Senegal, and by the command which we have thus acquired of the river of that name, (which is navigable for several hundred miles,) we have obtained an important inlet which will facilitate our humane purposes with regard to Africa. The Directors moreover inform us that they have succeeded in transplanting the mulberry-tree to Africa, and have sent silk-worms' eggs, with directions respecting the proper mode of rearing and managing that insect; that they have conveyed thither the model of a mill for cleaning rice from the husk; and that, in consequence of their application to Dr. Roxburgh of Calcutta, seeds of the most valuable trees and plants of India have been transmitted for the purpose of being sent to Africa, with instructions for their management: among which we find the *Tectonia grandis*, or the justly-famed timber called *Teak*.

A communication respecting the celebrated traveller Mungo Parke, which has appeared in all the newspapers, makes a part of this Report, and is calculated to revive the hope that he is still alive: but we are sorry to say that we place little stress on this intelligence.—An extract is also given from a letter of Lord Caledon, the governor of the Cape of Good Hope, dated May 29, 1809, containing a short account of the travels of Dr. Cowan, who had penetrated far into the interior from the Cape, and was expected to reach Mozambique, or one of the Portuguese settlements on the Eastern coast.—In a letter dated March 6, 1809, from the governor of Sierre Leone, we read that measures have been taken to excite attention on that coast to the growth of cotton; — and in the substance of a communication by Henry Meredith, Esq. to the Secretary, dated Winnebak, December 20, 1809, we are presented with an interesting description of the Agoona country on the Gold Coast. A part of this paper we shall transcribe:

> 'Near the sea the soil is in many places light and sandy, and therefore unfavourable to the cultivation of most articles of tropical produce. And where it is of a different description, many plants are found not to thrive, in consequence, as is supposed, partly of the coldness and humidity of the sea breezes, or south-west winds, which meet with nothing on the shore to mitigate their severity; and partly because the air is there impregnated with saline particles thrown up by a constant and generally violent surf. About two or three miles from the sea, the soil is found to be much more productive;

and it gradually improves as it recedes, till, at the distance of six or eight miles from the shore, it is so fertile as to be well adapted for the growth of almost every article of tropical culture. The climate at this distance is also improved, and so temperate as to favour the cultivation of European plants and seeds. The articles which succeed best near the sea, are rice, sugar-cane, and cotton.

‘ The only mineral production which has hitherto been discovered in this country, is gold; their method of procuring which the natives endeavour to conceal from Europeans. They are obviously very ignorant of the proper means of searching for mineral bodies, or of working them when discovered.

‘ The domestic animals are sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, cats, common fowls, &c. Those in a wild state are, tigers, leopards, hyenas, buffaloes, hogs, deer, hares, ant-bears, musk-cats, squirrels, alligators, monkeys, snakes, &c. &c.

‘ There is but little timber in this country applicable to ship-building; but there are several kinds well adapted for house-building and cabinet ware, and other useful and ornamental purposes; though not in any great abundance. Besides these, its chief vegetable productions are, maize (of which there are two crops in the year), millet, yams, cassada, sweet potatoes, plantanes, bananas, sugar-cane, rice, cotton, pepper and pulse of various kinds, cabbages, ochra, eschallots, &c. besides oranges, pine-apples, and other tropical fruits. All these articles are more or less cultivated by the natives of Agoona. Their land, however, is for the most part capable of producing all other articles usually reared between the tropics. Their present system of agriculture, indeed, is very rude and defective; but it might be greatly improved, by introducing among them horses and horned cattle, and proper implements of husbandry, as well as useful seeds and plants; provided they had at the same time the benefit of the enlightened example and instruction of intelligent Europeans, who might be induced to engage in agricultural pursuits; and provided, also, their industry were excited and encouraged by suitable rewards.

‘ At present, all the land in the country forms a common stock, and no part of it can be appropriated by any individual, except during the time he actually cultivates it. There are extensive tracts of unoccupied land; not above a tenth part of the whole being in cultivation. Any native of Agoona, who chooses to clear and cultivate any portion of this unoccupied land, becomes the exclusive possessor of it for the time: but if he should afterwards allow it to lie waste, he ceases to have any peculiar claim to it: it may be occupied by any other individual. Among the natives, no such thing is practised as the lease or sale of lands; except in the case of Europeans, who sometimes for five or six pounds may obtain the appropriation of a considerable tract of land. Their title to lands so obtained is not likely to be disturbed; but, in the present state of society, unless they had the means of protecting themselves, if necessary, by force, the produce which they might raise could not be considered as altogether secure. Their best means of protection would be to have a considerable number of hired cultivators in constant pay, who would serve the double purpose of cultivating the soil, and protecting the fruits of their labour from pillage. Labourers may easily be had at the rate of from ten shillings to twelve shillings and sixpence per month.

'Agonna contains no navigable river; but it is tolerably supplied with fresh water, by means of rivulets which flow through it, and branch off in a variety of directions.'

Mr. Meredith's communication thus concludes:

'The foregoing observations embrace but a small portion of what is called the Gold Coast; and although there is throughout the whole much similarity of soil and climate, yet in other respects there are material differences. The Anta country, for instance, which lies between the rivers Ancobra and Succondee, is a rich, woody country, well watered, and well planted. The timber here is fit for every purpose. It abounds in gold, and other metals, in a greater degree than the neighbouring states. The cultivation of the soil is more attended to than in many parts of the coast; and it has many very convenient creeks and harbours.

'The river Ancobra separates this state from the kingdom of Apollonia. Here the country is still better watered by lakes and rivers: it is more flat, and better adapted for the growth of rice, sugar-cane, and all those articles which require a moist soil. The great disadvantage under which Apollonia labours, is, that the surf along its coast is so violent that it is impossible to land without danger. The form of its government is despotic; a circumstance which certainly prevents many of those irregularities and abuses which prevail in other districts.

'As we recede from the sea, however, and advance into the interior, the state of things appears to be much more favourable, than it can be said to be on any part of the coast. We witness a life of more industry and more happiness; and a great improvement, not only in these important respects, but in soil, climate, and other natural advantages. In short, the capabilities of Africa can be appreciated but in a very inadequate degree, if we confine our observations to the sea coast, and do not proceed inland. The difference, indeed, is visible even a few miles from the shore; but it is still greater the farther we advance into the country. There is no valuable article of tropical culture which might not be raised in this country in great abundance; while its population stands in need of our manufactures, and is accustomed to their use. And when it is considered what the hand of industry has done in the West Indies — in the pestilential swamps of Guiana, for instance — what may not fairly be expected from the rich hills and extensive plains of this country, blessed as it is with a luxuriant soil, and a comparatively healthy climate?'

Who must not wish, after a view of this picture of Africa, that the inhabitants may be assisted in the cultivation of their soil, and in the acquisition of knowlege and moral habits?

We are assured that, since the abolition of the slave-trade, no convictions for witchcraft have taken place among the Africans, and that the inhabitants are evidently more industrious. Indeed, the Report before us, though it professes to hold out no abundant information, affords a gratifying prospect to the friends of humanity.

MON TALOGUE,

Y, 1811.

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Art. 14. *A* *for Navigation and Nautical Astronomy;* nd accurate Methods, for all the Calculatio cularly for deducing the Longitude from L the Latitude from two Altitudes of t of Time between the Observations. B s, Esq. F.R.S. 2d Edition, improved. 4to. Black, Parry, and Co. 1809.

The first edition of this useful and laborious performance was noticed by us in Vol. li. N. S. p. 148.; and the alterations in this impression would not, perhaps, by themselves, have led us into a second report of it, had not an extraneous and unfortunate circumstance afforded additional inducement: six hundred uninsured copies of the former edition were, we believe, destroyed in a fire; and in such an event we cannot forbear sympathizing with the author, and endeavouring in some degree, however small, to repair his loss. Those who require works like the present are referred for a description and estimate of it to our former critique: but we have to add that there are improvements in this second edition, which are thus described by the author:

'The method I have formerly given to clear from the effects of refraction and parallax, the apparent distances of the moon from the sun or a star, is exceedingly short and convenient, consisting merely of additions, without any distinction of cases; and the few numbers which enter into the computations being found with great ease in the Tables. I have lately discovered that I might modify the precepts for this calculation in such a manner as will procure a reduction of two figures in each of the four numbers used for correcting the lunar distances, and therefore these numbers are now given (in Table X.) only to five figures, instead of the seven of which they were composed in the first edition. This makes the computation still more expeditious; and I flatter myself, that the method here delivered for the solution of that important problem of Nautical Astronomy, combines all the advantages which are likely to induce Navigators to make frequent use of it, and will contribute to render more general the practice of ascertaining the longitude from lunar observations.

'The calculation of the apparent time from the altitude of a heavenly body is facilitated by the Table of the logarithmic sines, secants, versed, coversed, &c. which I have given with the arguments in parts of the circle, and in time, to every 15 seconds of the former, or 1 second of the latter argument, as far as 180° or 12^h; so that no proportional parts are wanted in their application to the usual purposes of Nautical Astronomy. And I take the opportunity of recommending the use of this Table, which may be very convenient and extensive in Trigonometry, by the manner in which I have considered the versed sines; the expressions of which, both natural and logarithmic, as far as the diameter, I long ago computed, though they were only published for the first time in my Tables of 1801.

'In the first edition of this work, I included two subsidiary tables, for the calculation of the latitude from two altitudes of the sun and the interval of time between the observations; but they are not so convenient as I wished to make them, on account of the double proportional parts, which I could not contrive to exhibit at full length within the size of the page, in the same easy manner which I had adopted in other cases. I now give a method for that problem, which although it consists of a few more figures, will be found more convenient than the former, and only requires the use of the logarithmic sines, versed, &c.

'With a view to illustrate the use of the Tables, I have enlarged the Explanation considerably, including several problems which were not in the first edition, particularly one for finding the latitude from the altitude of the pole star by means of the traverse table, and all those that relate to the use of chronometers for determining the longitude.'

NOVELS.

Art. 15. *The Miseries of an Heiress.* By Anthony Frederic Holstein, Author of "Sir Owen Glendowr," "The Assassin of St. Glenroy," &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 2s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1810.

The griefs and mortifications which may be supposed to be often incident to the situation of an heiress are here naturally pourtrayed, and are made interesting without being much exaggerated; while an useful lesson is inculcated against groundless suspicion on the one hand, and easy credulity on the other. The style is less inflated and more correct than in any of Mr. Holstein's former productions; though he still occasionally introduces words of his own coining, such as '*dissimularian,*' '*lassitudinarian,*' '*pled*' instead of *pleaded,* &c. The conversation and dialogues appear to us the least attractive parts of the book: but some of the author's reflections evince delicacy of feeling and acuteness of observation, and the want of diversity in the incidents is compensated by the variety displayed in the characters, which are drawn and supported with considerable spirit; while an air of originality and a continued interest prevail throughout the work.

Art.

16. *Edwy and Elgiva;* an Historical Romance of the Tenth
entury. By John Agg. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. Boards. Chapple.
11.

ften has the subject of this tale been handled unsuccessfully by
writers than the present author; and the few historical docu-
ts which remain respecting the reign of Edwy can scarcely be
ified into four volumes without copying from uninteresting
kish records on the one hand, or possessing considerable know-
le, taste, and discernment on the other, in order to invent circum-
stances which may have an air of authenticity. — Mr. Agg, how-
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e time,"

from w he makes packet boats in the 10th
c eland with the greatest regularity,
w resemblance which he can give
th sel of this class, or of a Margate
Hoy. the insolence of Abbot Dunstan
and degree, that he makes the King
appea s mad: his language is full of
inaccur w ideas, or pleasing sentiments, that
could atone for the want of attraction and probability which we are compelled to notice in this performance. As to probability, indeed, the writer of a Romance generally scorns it.

Art. 17. *Wieland,* or the Transformation. An American Tale. By B. C. Brown, Author of "Ormond," &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. Colburn. 1811.

The author of this work appears to entertain higher expectations with regard to its reception, than we imagine that he is authorized in indulging either by the improbable adventures of Wieland, or the flat and tedious manner in which they are related by his sister. All the mysteries of the tale are founded on the tricks of ventriloquism and the outrages of madness: but these can scarcely afford instruction; and in the present instance they are so inartificially managed that they fail to excite interest. Nevertheless, we give credit to Mr. Brown for his desire of being useful; and we think that a warning against yielding to superstition may be gathered from his book.

EDUCATION.

Art. 18. *Moral Truths, and Studies from Natural History.* Intended as a Sequel to the Juvenile Journal, or Tales of Truth. By Mrs Cockle. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Chapple. 1810.

Copious extracts from the writings of Darwin, Paley, &c. impart an adventitious value to this work, while the compiler herself is intitled to praise for her manner of selecting and connecting these materials. Her plan for a journal or diary to be kept by a little girl is in itself good, and we think that our young friends can glean nothing that will not be pleasant and profitable from this publication.

Art. 19. *Guy's New British Spelling Book*, or an easy Introduction to Spelling and Reading, in Seven Parts, &c. &c. 12mo. 1s. 6d. bound. Cradock. 1809.

This spelling book promises to be as useful as any that we have seen. The reading lessons are amusing, the columns of spelling are well arranged, and the whole is in general divested of needless perplexities.

Art. 20. *Il vero modo di piacere in Compagnia, &c.* By Carlo Monteggia. 12mo. pp. 315. Boards. Colburn. 1810.

In composing a book for children, their amusement should be consulted as much as their instruction, or the work will be in danger of having only the first pages cut open. Signor Monteggia has been aware of this necessity; and though his subject is unpromising, he has introduced so many "antient saws and modern instances," in order to enliven his observations on polite behaviour, that he escapes being wearisome: while the opposite pages of Italian and French are sufficiently alike to assist the reader, without losing the idiom of either language by injudicious similarity. On the whole, therefore, we think so favourably of this performance, that we do not hesitate in recommending it to our young readers, who are studying the Italian language.

Art. 21. *The Juvenile Spectator.* Being Observations on the Tempers, Manners, and Foibles of various young Persons. By Arabella Argus. 12mo. 4s. 6d. bound. Dartons. 1810.

Mrs. Argus, as this writer chooses to be called, appears to be well acquainted with the dispositions and habits of young people, and her work will afford pleasure to a sensible child by the natural anecdotes and good humoured advice which it contains: but she might perhaps have rendered it more acceptable if she had enlivened it with a few Tales, in imitation of her predecessors, Isaac Bickerstaff and Adam Fitz Adam, &c.; and she would have made it more useful, if she had paid greater attention to the propriety of her style. For instance, she says, 'You will let Lucy and *I* know how you spend this dollar;'—'there *is* a thousand *ways* in which news may be brought,' &c.—She talks also of *naming* circumstances, instead of *mentioning* them; and she speaks of one boy in the following enigmatical manner: 'He is going to school to-morrow; where I hope he will acquire steadiness of character, at present his most predominant defect!'

Art. 22. *Mylius's School Dictionary of the English Language.* Intended for those by whom a Dictionary is used as a Series of daily Lessons. In which such Words as are pedantical, vulgar, indelicate, and obsolete are omitted; and such only are preserved as are purely and simply English, or are of necessary Use and universal Application. The second Edition: to which is prefixed a New Guide to the English Tongue. By Edward Baldwin, Esq. 12mo. 2s. 6d. bound. Godwin. 1809.

Mr. Mylius makes a just distinction between an interpreting and an elementary Dictionary; and the plan of his present publication is rational, though its execution is not quite unexceptionable: since his care to exclude such words as are 'indelicate' has not been eq lled by his attention in rejecting all which are 'vulgar or obsol te.'

'he 'Essay on the English Language,' prefixed to this edition, is genious, and shews that the writer has studied his subject: but, a e ought to have furnished an example as well as a rule of luminous expression, he should either not have introduced the word *paradigm*, with some others, or he should have caused them to be explained in the columns of the dictionary, which are debased by many expletives that have no right to insertion; such as *Mewl*, to squall as a child, — *Screetch*, to shriek; — *Snack*, a share; — *Swash*, to make a g &c.

Art *'ade Mecum*, or Indispensable Com-
d the different Cases of Persons and
French Verbs and Adjectives: the
hey govern, those required by the
it Moods which must follow the
P. C. Le Vasseur, a Native of
Cathedral of Lisieux. 12mo. 3s.
1809.

y be useful to such persons as wish to acquire th speaking French grammatically, yet, as the French words are placed *first*, the student can only learn their cases and government, without receiving any assistance in finding expressions for his ideas; and many words are introduced which are not used in conversation, and should therefore have been distinguished as technical or obsolete, lest they should be injudiciously applied. — However, as the size of this work is convenient, and as the plan is in some respects dissimilar from that of other elementary books in the same language, it may prove an advantageous addition to their number.

Art 24. *Contes à ma Fille*; &c. *i.e.* Tales for my Daughter. By J. N. Bouilly, Member of the Philotechnic Society, &c. in Paris. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Colburn. 1811.

These tales are the production of a man of letters who has devoted himself to the instruction of his daughter; and they will be acceptable to all those who have undertaken a similar task, from the amusing variety of their subjects, and the moral lessons which they convey. The story of M. de Malesherbe's roses, which is beautiful, we believe to be founded on facts; and *Les Papillotes*, *La Piece d'Or*, and *Le Journal des Modes*, are very ingenious and original: but we think that M. Bouilly expatiates too much on the *beauty* and the *attire* of his little heroines, and represents the parents as employing unnecessary *finesse* in correcting their foibles. One father instructs his servants in a line of conduct which may have a proper influence on the pride of his daughter; and another causes himself to be imprisoned during six months, in the hope that his Cornelia will learn to read during his detention. These schemes are too romantic and insincere to succeed in real life; and they remind us of Rousseau's visionary contrivance for reproving Emilius, which was to station at every corner of the street some obliging butchers and bakers, who were all prepared to ma make the required speeches, as if by accident, when the boy passed near them.

Art. 25. *True Stories; or interesting* Anecdotes of young Persons: designed through the Medium of Example to inculcate Principles of Virtue and Piety. By the Author of "Lessons for young Persons in humble Life." 12mo. 4s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1810.

We are sorry to perceive that, in this work, the writer is rather too melancholy in his selection; the greatest part of the present publication consisting of examples of learning and virtue in young persons who have perished in early life. The consumption which carried off Edward the Sixth makes way for the scaffold of Lady Jane Grey, and these are followed by the histories of Henry Prince of Wales and the Countess of Suffolk, &c.: so that this portion of the volume will afford the same sort of information which may be gained by reading the monumental inscriptions in Westminster Abbey, but without the amusement of gazing on cloistered arches, and "painted windows richly dight." Young people require to be entertained as well as admonished; and one striking or interesting anecdote will often make more impression, and excite them to emulation more effectually, than a volume of death-bed scenes, or melancholy panegyrics penned by surviving friends. We must, however, applaud the compiler for the purity of his language, and the morality which is observable in the choice of his subjects. A knowlege of history, as well as of biography, may be promoted by his work; and if he succeeds in engaging the attention of his young readers, their time will be advantageously employed.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *The Medical Remembrancer;* or Pharmaceutical Vade-mecum. Being a short Sketch of the Properties and Effects of all the Medicinal Compositions and Simples now in use, as directed by the College of Physicians in the last new London Pharmacopœia, arranged under their several Classes. To which is added, an alphabetical Table in Latin and English, with the former and present new Names; containing the proper Doses of each Medicine. Intended as a complete Pocket Manual. By T. F. Churchill, M.D. 12mo. 3s. Johnson and Co. 1810.

The object of this compilation is so very fully expressed in its title that we have little to add on this point; and we do not observe any thing in the execution which calls either for much praise or much censure: it appears to be in general free from any glaring errors, and to be sufficiently common-place. The following observation, however, which the author makes in the introduction, may deserve to be quoted, as stating what appears to us an important matter of fact on an important subject.

'Scarcely have the names adopted about twenty years since become in some degree familiarised to the profession, but the London College of Physicians have thought it expedient to make a revisal of their Pharmacopœia, and to make *another* entire change in them; — how far beneficial or desirable, I leave to professional men to determine;

mine: suffice it here to say, that they have now a totally *new lesson* to learn, till which, however long or extended their practice in dispensing medicines according to the *late terms*, they must and will often find themselves at a loss, without the assistance of a Pharmacopœia.'

Art. 27. *A Genuine Guide to Health*; or practical Essays on the most approved means of preserving Health and preventing Diseases, &c. &c. By T. F. Churchill, M. D. &c. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Crosby and Co. 1810.

Something in the title and general aspect of this book immediately gave us the impression of its being one of that class of literary productions which, in vulgar language, are denominated *puffs*, and the authors of which are distinguished by the equally honorable denomination of *quacks*. We were not the less inclined to this opinion, when we found Dr. Churchill extremely anxious to vindicate himself against the charge of quackery, and contrasting his 'Guide' with those of Drs. *Solomon* and *Brodum*, at whom he rails most unmercifully. He offers on this subject an argument which he appears to regard as quite convincing; namely, that his work cannot be a puff, because it is not written for the purpose of recommending any nostrum: forgetting or concealing that, although the book may not be intended as a puff for any specific drug, it may be designed as a puff for the author. Of this matter, our readers may judge from the ensuing paragraph in the introduction:

'In conclusion: from a conviction of the advantages which mankind will experience in proportion as these rules are complied with, I am again impelled to enforce on my readers a careful and steady perusal of them; and having satisfied themselves of their importance, to use every endeavour in recommending a general adoption of them to those with whom they have sufficient influence, It has cost me no small share of pains in the completion of this task; and under a conviction of its vast utility, I beg leave to suggest the absolute necessity of a general circulation among all ranks of people. For this purpose I would hint to the more *opulent* part of the public, that no present more acceptable and profitable could be offered to their *indigent* neighbours, who have an equal interest with themselves in the attainment of *the blessing of health*.'

Let us, however, examine a little farther into the merits of the work. The first chapter treats on fire; in which the author talks very learnedly about Hippocrates and Plato, and informs us that fire is 'the cementing principle or bond of union, which connects the most minute atoms of bodies one to another.' We have also another morsel of information equally correct, that 'both animal and vegetable substances, which have a natural tendency to run precipitately into a state of putrefaction when divested of this principle, are only prevented from it through the interposition of this element.' We have not yet done with the wonders that are performed by fire, for, notwithstanding that it is the cementing principle, it is also the grand agent in lessening and separating the particles of bodies. The following piece of hypothesis, in which the operation of fire on the living body is described, will serve as a specimen of Dr. Churchill's talent at theorizing:

'Seeing then from these few brief observations, that fire is not only extended in a certain degree throughout all bodies, and that by its activity it is capable of overcoming the strongest cohesions, we shall from thence in its application be in some measure enabled to judge of its influence with respect to diseases. In all disorders the equilibrium between the internal fire, and the external air is by some means interrupted; the consequence of this is, that the fluids become vitiated, the circulation impeded, and in proportion to the violence and danger of the complaint, is the fire more or less predominant.'

With this extract we close our remarks on the 'genuine Guide to Health,' because we think that our readers will now be sufficiently enabled to appreciate the science and ability of the person who has here undertaken to be their medical director.

Art. 28. *A Dissertation on the Foot of the Horse*, or a Series of original Experiments on the Foot of the Living Horse, exhibiting the Changes produced by Shoeing, and the Causes of the apparent Mystery of this Art. By Bracy Clark, Veterinary Surgeon, F. L. S. &c. In Two Parts. Part 1st. 4to. 10s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

This pamphlet has been sometime in our hands, but we deferred noticing it until we might be in possession of the remaining part, with which the present is so intimately connected as to render it difficult to give an account of the one without the other. As, however, it does not appear that the conclusion will very soon be published, and the discussion is generally interesting, we have determined to give a general report of the design, postponing the more minute examination of it until we have an opportunity of obtaining the whole of the author's ideas. Our opinion of the commencement is highly favourable, since Mr. Clark is evidently master of his subject, and treats it in a perspicuous manner. His great object is to prove that, in consequence of the too early application of shoes to the horse's foot, its natural shape is affected, so that few persons are acquainted with the form which this part would acquire if it were unchanged by any extraneous cause. An opportunity fortunately occurred for ascertaining the shape of the foot of a mare, which had remained unshod till the age of five years; and the author having obtained an exact cast of the part, he deduces from this model his general conclusions with respect to the probable effect of shoeing, as it is usually performed, and the injury to the mechanism of the foot which depends on the present practice. A great part of the dissertation is of course occupied with anatomical details, which, as far as we are able to judge, are correct. The remedy for the evil is to form the subject of the 2d part; and we sincerely hope that it will not be long withholden from the public, and that the author will be able to render his suggestions as *practical* as his premises are sound.

and although he cannot resist the *cacoëthes scribendi*, he appears to be aware of his imprudence in yielding to it,—at least if we may judge from his 'Sonnet to Apollo,' a part of which will serve as a specimen of his style, even if it be not admitted as an evidence of his opinion;

'SONNET.

'Me! half-starv'd devil as I am,
Apollo! say, canst thou abide?
The Muses' curse upon the dam
That brought *you* and your luckless tribe;
For tempting me, poor sinful wight,
In rags to take poetic flight.'

The sonnet proceeds with an imprecatory address to Poverty: but we will not force any more of this doggerel on our readers, lest they should not feel more disposed to 'abide' Mr. Hatt's effusions, than Apollo and his 'luckless tribe' appear to have been.

POLITICS.

Art. 33. *The Speech of John Leach, Esq. M P.*, in the Committee of the whole House upon the State of the Nation, December 31, 1810, upon the Question of Limitations to the Royal Authority in the Hands of the Regent. 8vo. pp. 32. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

Very justly may Mr. Leach say, that this speech has been the work of much labour and some reflection, for we have seldom met with so condensed and argumentative a performance. It manifests none of that diffuseness and circumlocution which are so common in the published speeches of our parliamentary orators, but all is concise and pointed. The speaker enumerates the various suspensions of the exercise of royal authority which have occurred in the course of our history, namely in the reigns of Edward III., Richard II., Henry VI., and Edward VI.; from all of which he infers that the two Houses of Parliament never did assume the right of which the Ministers of 1788 and the present time contend that they are possessed. The limitations imply (says Mr. Leach, p. 18.) that 'as to the excepted matters, there is to be no representation of the royal will; the functions of royalty to that extent are to be suspended: the constitutional monarchy therefore is not to be re-animated, but a mutilated monarchy is to be created.' The proper course, in Mr. Leach's opinion, was not to impose limitations on the Regent beforehand, but to controul him in the exercise of his power, by the means of restraint which the Constitution has lodged in the two Houses of Parliament; that which has been found effectual against Kings being, no doubt, effectual against a Regent. He concludes by the following summary of his opinions: 'If any function or prerogative of the Crown be now suspended, it will be for the first time in the annals of the country: the right of the two Houses of Parliament to make such suspension, in the absence of an efficient third estate, is supported by no authority, and is repelled by all such authority as the case affords: it is wholly inconsistent with the principle of necessity, which is the basis of our proceeding; and the argument of expediency is as unfounded as the claim of right.'—From the compression apparent in this publication, we are induced to think that Mr. Leach has a just sense of the difference of style between speaking and writing, and has considerably abridged his phraseology in preparing his thoughts for perusal in the closet.

Art. 34. *Cursory Remarks upon the Plan proposed for establishing a Regency*, during the Indisposition of His Majesty. 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff.

Respect for Majesty has prevented the Legislature from imagining that a degree of royal indisposition may occur, which shall suspend the functions of the regal authority; in consequence of which forbearance, no legal provision by a regency bill has formerly been enacted to meet so melancholy an emergency. When, therefore, the sad fact was recently announced, that His Majesty was rendered incapable of discharging the duties of royalty, the remaining estates of the realm, viz. the two Houses of Lords and Commons, were compelled to act *on the necessity of the case*, to the best of their judgment, for supplying the deficiency. Whether the Lords and Commons proceed by bill or by address, in both cases they must act without the third estate: but, as they act with all the remaining powers of the Constitution, that process is to be preferred which shall stamp on their proceedings the greatest possible authority, and which shall represent the powers with which the Regent may be invested as emanating from them, and resting on their appointment. Nothing republican presents itself in this idea. The Lords and Commons do not mean to *legislate* by such a bill, as this writer intimates, but to prepare for legislation by the solemn nomination of a Regent, who is to act with them in the King's name and in behalf of the realm, during the period of His Majesty's incapacity. The Remarker irrelevantly asks, 'Is it to be heard of, that two branches of the legislature should assume to themselves the functions of royalty, upon the ground of a necessity, of which they are the judges?' They are not alone the judges; the fact is proved to the conviction of the whole nation; and so far from assuming the functions of royalty, they only provide, in their wisdom, a substitute during the period of the suspension of regal power. As to the limitations to be imposed on the Regent, the author's arguments have some weight; since it seems to be expedient that, if the Regent be required to discharge all the duties of the Crown, he should be invested with all the constitutional powers of the Crown. As Mr. Whitbread remarked, if a Regent can perform all that is required of a King, with powers and prerogatives more limited than those which the King constitutionally possessed, the power of the Crown is greater than it ought to be.

Art. 35. *Copies from a Correspondence and Substance of Communications with Mr. Huskisson, Mr. Perceval,* &c. &c. on the Subject of the Waste and Abuses in the Military Establishments and Expenditure; demonstrating to the Public from reported Facts, and official Admissions, the Necessity of an immediate and complete Change in the existing System of managing and applying the Revenue. By J. J. Vassar, Esq. 8vo. pp. 155. 5s. Longman and Co. 1810.

iencies, having no operation but to lengthen the line of march, and
doing to impede it.' Mr. Addington seemed disposed to pay atten-
o this and other suggestions on the part of Mr. Vassar, but retired
office too soon to have it in his power to carry any measure into
. After this, we find a great chasm in the publication of Mr. Vas-
communications; his next letter bearing a date so recent as March
. In the course of that year he was employed by Mr. Huskisson
it several parts of the coast, particularly Sussex, and reported a
y of serious abuses in the ordnance department. In regard to
s, for example, three shillings a day are allowed to the contractor,
a leaves him, after having paid for their forage, the extravagant
t of 20l. a year on each. The horses are generally in a very indif-
t state of health, and no wonder, since a sum (he believes 20l.) is
to the contractor by Government for every horse which dies in
ourse of public service. Of all the branches of the ordnance, the
eer department appears to Mr. Vassar the most wasteful. In
art (p. 40.) he mentions a battery begun for the exercise of the
teers, which was made such a job, and advanced so slowly, that
s probable the volunteers would be disbanded before it was com-
d. In another part (p. 42.) he describes a mass of bricks, above
00, lying neglected, and indeed in a great measure decomposed
lissolved: they had been made on account of Government, but
found useless from a fault in the burning In the new works
ed on at an immense expence at Dover, Mr. Vassar says that
brickwork supporting the carriage of the guns will not sustain
hock of their discharge, some of them being already so gone to
s, that the wheels are nearly off the traverse; and long before
works are completed, it would be necessary to begin again.' In
cases, expence is found to counteract its purpose; 'the horses
n cavalry service would be kept in better health and be fitter for
e, were they to have fewer oats, and be subjected to a different
m of feeding. Some of them are more like cattle intended for

variety of details (page 71.) to shew the course of transactions which have been productive of this adverse balance, but seems not to be aware of that which appears to us the most powerful of all, viz. the stoppage of American remittances from the Continent. He combats, (p. 34.) and, in our opinion, with success, the notion first broached by Mr. Henry Thornton, and subsequently adopted by the Bullion-Committee, that the abundance of Bank of England-notes tends to produce a correspondent abundance of country-bank-notes. If, however, we assent to this position of Mr. Cock, we must withhold our concurrence from that which he introduces (p. 42.) immediately afterward; namely, that it would be in the power of the French government to drain us of our guineas on the resumption of our cash-payments. If Bonaparte chuse to pay us a premium for our guineas, let him take them, and welcome: but they will not fail to find their way back to us, unless he hoards them, which would be a policy of a new kind.

The most useful part of Mr. Cock's pamphlet consists in the tables which occur at pages 77. 81. and 95. He concludes with dissuading from the measure of opening the Bank, as long as the balance of payments is against us, in which we agree with him: but we can by no means express an acquiescence in the method which he would take to turn the tide, namely that of restraining our importations from the continent. Let us only remove our existing restraints on neutral traffic, and the balance of trade will not be long in returning to its level.

Art. 37. *A Letter to the Right Honourable George Rose, M. P. Vice President of the Board of Trade,* in which the real Causes of the Scarcity and consequent high Price of Gold and Silver are stated and exemplified. By Charles Lyne, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Richardson.

Mr. Lyne, we understand, is also a city-merchant, and of much longer experience than Mr. Cock. His business is chiefly with Portugal, and this circumstance led to his being examined before the Bullion-Committee on the subject of our exchange with that country. Like most of the other witnesses, Mr. L. was unsuccessful in his endeavours to produce conviction on the minds of the Committee; and the sentiments expressed in Mr. Huskisson's pamphlet are so directly opposite to his own, as to have induced him to take up the pen with no little share of warmth. As a witness, he confined himself to an enumeration of facts and circumstances; as a writer, he goes farther, and endeavours to deduce conclusions; in which we partly agree with and partly dissent from him. We concur with him in lamenting that the Bullion-Committee should have been so imperfectly acquainted with the course of our trade in 1809, and that they should have spoken of the depreciation of our money in a way that was calculated to lead the public to impute to excess of paper that which has arisen from excess of taxation: but he is misinformed in the statement that the price of commodities has risen on the Continent of Europe, of late years, in the same way as here: in France, at least at a distance from the metropolis, we believe that this has by no means been the case. A comparison of the present prices in France with Arthur Young's list made out twenty three years ago, will shew that, in many places, money goes farther now than it did then. — In expatiating on the increase of our national opulence, Mr. Lyne seems to us to consider, with many other worthy people, a rise in the price of commodities as a token of the augmentation of our wealth; and he falls into an error of nearly the same kind, in alleging that the circumstance of notes and guineas being of equal value, in our market, affords a proof that the notes are not depreciated: but he seems to forget that this equality may be produced by the positive agency of law. He explains with great propriety (p. 25.) the mixed character of the foreign trade of Portugal, which, as in our own case, creates with some countries a balance against her; a balance which she pays by bills on other countries, who in their turn have regularly fallen in debt to her. This, though Mr. Lyne has not perceived it, forms an exact counterpart to our own case relative to America and the Continent of Europe.

After having been very severe on Mr. Huskisson's opinions, Mr. Lyne considers it as due to that gentleman to bear testimony to the purity of his motives. A perusal of this pamphlet did not in the least impress us with the idea of personality towards Mr. Huskisson: but it proved that Mr. Lyne felt very sore at the passage in the Report, which describes the "evidence of men of practical detail as vague and unsatisfactory."

Art. 38. *A Letter to a Member of Parliament*, occasioned by the Publication of the Report from the Select Committee on the high price of Gold Bullion. By Jasper Atkinson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 104. 3s. 6d. Stockdale jun.

We think that Mr. Atkinson's letter forms one of the best pamphlets which have appeared on the side adverse to the Committee. He creates a favourable prepossession by declaring that, though he is the opponent of any positive order for the resumption of cash-payments during war, he will earnestly deprecate any delay in regard to the adoption of that measure after the arrival of peace. Among his chief arguments we may specify the following: 1st, that the Committee assert in their report too absolutely that bullion is not scarce; 2d, that the fall in our exchange is owing not to depreciation of our paper, but to the amount of our foreign expenditure; 3d, that the depreciation of Irish bank-paper in 1804, declared by the Committee to resemble the present case, is wholly unlike it; 4th, that the increase of Country-bank and Bank of England paper does not go hand in hand, as the Committee imagine, but that the augmentation of the former has a powerful tendency in expelling the latter from country districts; 5th, that the Committee have acted very inadvertently in using such positive language, when ascribing the increased price of commodities to the influence of our paper-money. We may add to these observations that Mr. Atkinson seems adequately impressed with a sense of the evils of war; an opinion which we are induced to notice, because several of our mercantile pamphleteers have most absurdly imagined that our commerce gains by a continuance of hostilities.

Art. 39. *Remarks on the present State of Public Credit;* and the Consequences likely to result from the Decease of Mr. A. Goldsmid and Sir F. Baring; in a Letter to W. Manning, Esq. M.P., Deputy Governor of the Bank. By Erinaceus. 8vo. pp. 43. 2s. J. Johnston.

This pamphlet is the production of a writer who represents himself as waiting, day after day, for the appearance of a publication on the subject from some individual of experience in financial affairs, and as finally induced to address Mr. Manning from respect for his thorough acquaintance with our commercial interests. The name of Manning has long been familiar to us in the catalogue both of our merchants and of the members of our legislature: but the regard with which we are disposed to consider it would not be increased by supposing it to convey a sanction to the present publication, since the writer seems to have scarcely any object in view but to pour invective on those who have come forwards in support of the Bullion-Committee. Such epithets as 'malignant, venal, sordid,' and even worse, are dealt out (p. 14, 15. 18. 47.) with an unsparing hand: but even the persons who are the objects of them are likely to be disarmed of angry feelings, on making the discovery that these high-sounding words are adopted chiefly as a vehicle for flowing declamation. Of the extent of the writer's knowlege in matters of trade, some idea may be formed from his adherence (p. 22.) to the old mercantile notion of computing the amount of our gains by the balance of our Custom-house books. So little does he know of the nature of loans, that he considers the houses of Baring and Goldsmid as having made a monopoly of them; or, to borrow one of his characteristic expressions, 'a monstrous and unparalleled monopoly:' yet, after having applied such pithy epithets as these to the transactions of the Goldsmids, he seems to perceive no inconsistency in launching out into a long encomium on the unfortunate brothers; so long, indeed, as to make the reader think that to eulogize their memory was one of the principal objects of the publication.

Art. 40. *Doubts as to the Expediency of adopting the Recommendations of the Bullion-Committee.* By John Fonblanque, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Chapple.

If we mistake not, this Mr. Fonblanque is the gentleman of that name who is known at the bar, and his pamphlet discovers more knowlege of law than of trade. He falls, in the latter respect, into several errors; such as (p. 16.) that the resumption of cash-payments would make bullion scarce; and (p. 18.) that foreigners would seize the opportunity of converting their stock into cash and exporting it. If he will travel through Mr. Blake's pamphlet on Exchange (see the first article of this Review,) and revolve in his mind the various effects of the opinion adopted (p. 28.) by himself, that the balance of demands in course of payment from one country to another is the great regulator of exchange, he will find it possible to divest himself of this alarm which at present haunts his imagination. With the view of preventing the recurrence of the mischiefs which have befallen us of late, as well as in 1793, he proposes to subject the Bank of England and our country-banks to several regulations: these suggestions seem all very fair and well meant: but we are such resolute advocates for unrestrained freedom in all commercial transactions, that we can agree with him in only one point, namely, in the propriety of abolishing the limitation of the number of partners in a country-bank; the law at present prohibiting the union of more than six names in any other banking concern in South Britain than the Bank of England. The chief merit of this little tract seems to us to consist in its legal definitions.

Art. 41 *Reflections on the Report of the Bullion-Committee;* in a Letter addressed to a Member of Parliament. To which are subjoined some Strictures on Country-Banks. By Joseph Bradney, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bath.

Mr. Bradney, who was formerly a London merchant, but has long retired to Bath, represents himself as stimulated by the extraordinary doctrines in the Report of the Bullion-Committee to take up the pen on the subjects which formerly occupied him. We cannot, however, compliment him highly on the fruit of his labours, and must dissent from several of his opinions; particularly when (p. 20.) he goes so far as to think that the Bank-restriction is an advisable measure, without much reference to the necessity of the case; and when he expresses (p. 18) his coincidence in the old notion that farmers are enabled by country banks to make a monopoly of their produce:—neither can we concur in his hostility (p. 22.) to country-banks in general; and indeed the chief point on which we seem to agree is the opinion (p. 16.) that the price of gold bullion is the test of the value of bank-notes.

Art 42. *An Examination of the Preface to a Pamphlet, entitled* "The Question concerning the Depreciation of our Currency stated and examined, by W. Huskisson, Esq M.P." 8vo. 1s. Richardson.

The writer of this little tract complains that the leading members of the Bullion-Committee set out with preconceived doctrines, to which they pertinaciously adhered in despite of the evidence adduced before them. He is very desirous of making Mr. Huskisson the object of sarcasm, in respect both to his retiring from office, and to the labour which he has bestowed in rendering his pamphlet acceptable to the public; insinuating that Mr. H is by no means so indifferent, as he professes, to the acquisition of literary fame.

Art. 43. *Phocion's Opinions on the Public Funds,* on the Circulating Medium, and on the Situation of the United Kingdom at this critical juncture. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

We have here a very quaint, and in some respects an obscure performance. Its principal tenets are, 1st, that the issue of bank-notes has not proved an evil to any one class of society; 2d, that it has not added to the price of commodities; and 3d, that the present embarrassments in the mercantile world are not owing to that cause. Short as this pamphlet is, it would be a difficult task to analyze its course of reasoning; and we shall content ourselves with remarking that the author is an enemy to all restrictions on trade, as well as to the prosecution of continental warfare: but that he perplexes these and some other tolerably just opinions by such absurd expressions as 'the conductment of the war,' and 'the public funds were, before the appointment of the Bullion-Committee, at a most *confidential* height,' &c. &c.

Art. 44. *A short Statement of the Trade in Gold Bullion ;* with an Attempt to shew that Bank Notes are not depreciated. 8vo. pp. 81. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

We were in hopes, from the title of this pamphlet, that it was one of those explanations of practical detail which are such great *desiderata* to the speculative inquirer ; and our expectations were strengthened on being informed by the author (p. 14.) that his life has been passed in business, and that he had resided at Lisbon during the long period from 1776 to 1801. As we proceeded, however, we found much less of explanation than of argument ; a kind of writing into which practical men are apt to fall, without being aware that their habits form a very imperfect preparation for it. We have often wished that writers of this class would bear in mind the judicious recommendation of the German physician Hüfeland, professor of medicine at Göttingen, who was accustomed to entreat his patients, when they transmitted him a case, to confine themselves to dry facts, and by all means to desist from reasoning on them. The author of this tract, after having given us a few facts, or rather opinions, in regard to the annual amount of former importations of gold into Europe, proceeds to infer, from the diminution in their quantity, joined to a progressive increase in the consumption of gold, that an actual scarcity of that metal prevails. He contends most stoutly against the existence of a depreciation of our paper, and mentions (p. 48.) that the allegation might be founded with as much justice on the rise in the price of lead or tin, as on that in the price of bullion ; while, on the other hand, it would be equally fair to argue from the fall in the price of coffee, cotton, sugar, and other articles, that money had augmented in value. He will find, however, that, during the last twenty years, many more articles have risen than fallen in price ; and had he ventured a little farther into the depths of political economy, he might have arrived at a comprehensive rule to guide his calculations and inferences : we mean, he would have discovered that the natural tendency of things is to become cheaper as society advances, and that enhancement is produced by taxation. He mentions having read Dr. Smith in his *younger days*, and charges that profound thinker with error, (p 52.) with as little scruple as if he himself had made the point in question the subject of meditation for years. We are led to advert to this circumstance, not by any undue confidence in the general tone of this author's composition, but as an example of the levity with which men, who bestow only a few weeks on the preparation of a pamphlet, are disposed to question the accuracy of opinions, the formation of which required the labour of half a man's life.

While we agree with the author that the supplies of gold have long been in a course of diminution, and that the relative value of gold to silver has increased, we cannot admit this as a solution of our present money-difficulties. Such a cause might account for a general scarcity of gold, but it affords no reason for concluding that gold should be more scarce in this island than on the Continent. Now it is pretty clear from the documents appended to the Bullion-Report, that the scarcity on the Continent has been very little, while here it has been very great. Other parts, however, of this pamphlet, we are disposed to regard with more attention, particularly the suggestion, p. 58. respecting a new coinage. The author, like Mr. Mushet, (see Rev. for October last,) is desirous of coining our precious metals into denominations of weight, (for example, gold into quarter ounces) with the view of getting rid of the perplexing distinctions of mint-price and market-price; as well as in the hope of lessening the mischievous practice of melting our coin into the shape of bullion for sale.

The chief object of this tract is to oppose the recommendation of the Bullion-Committee in regard to a compulsory resumption of cash-payments. We also are of a similar opinion, but on different grounds. This author founds his resistance on the scarcity which he believes to exist in gold; we, on the unfavourable course of our trade with the Continent, and even with America, in consequence of the operation of our Orders in Council.—One of the chief objections to the pamphlet is, that it takes no notice of the influence of trade on the course of exchange.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In reference to a question in our last Number, p. 398, quoted from the *Barrister*'s "Hints," *Amicus* refers us to the story of the Pharisee and the Publican, in Luke xviii. 9—14.: but had he read that passage with adequate attention, we think that he would not have classed the Pharisee among "the holiest of men," nor the Publican among "the worst of sinners." The former, so far from displaying the genuine properties of holiness, values himself on the score of having *fasted* and *paid tithes*; while the latter, by the contrite manner in which he makes confession of himself as a sinner, manifests that godly sorrow which is a sure symptom of inherent virtue: for when the *principle* of virtue is extinguished, as in "the worst of sinners," they do not in the language of penitence pray for mercy.

Dr. Craufurd's communication is received.

Mr. Lockie's work is not forgotten.

To P. W. T., *et hoc genus omne*, we always decline to give admission.

⁂ The APPENDIX to the last volume of the Review is published with this Number, and contains accounts of a variety of interesting FOREIGN books; with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the volume.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1811.

Art. I. *Ta Tsing Leu Lee; being the Fundamental Laws, and a Selection from the Supplementary Statutes, of the Penal Code of China;* originally printed and published in Pekin, in various successive Editions, under the Sanction and by the Authority of the several Emperors of the Ta Tsing, or present Dynasty. Translated from the Chinese; and accompanied with an Appendix, consisting of authentic Documents, and a few occasional Notes, illustrative of the Subject of the Work. By Sir George Thomas Staunton, Bart. F.R.S. 4to. pp. lxxv. and 581. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

WHATEVER difference of opinion may exist respecting the success of Lord Macartney's embassy to China in attaining its political and commercial objects, we think that no doubt can be felt concerning the accession which it has produced to our knowlege of the most extensive empire and the most singular people on the face of the earth. The narrative of that mission by the late Sir George Staunton conferred a most valuable benefit on the literary public, by verifying important facts and correcting material errors in relation to the history of China; the opportunities of observation presented to the English visitors, though far from being so numerous as we might have wished and expected, were improved with all possible diligence, and the results were described with graphic precision; and it may be truly added that the motives of the Chinese government for precluding farther inquiry, and the manner of preventing it, were in themselves perhaps more peculiarly characteristic of that jealous and unenlightened despotism, than any accumulation of minuter circumstances was likely to have proved.

The publication, however, to which we have alluded, does not constitute its author's highest claim on the applause of his country. The readers of that work can hardly fail to recollect that Sir G. Staunton, in the course of it, mentioned more than once, with feelings of great diffidence, not unmingled certainly with the emotions of paternal pride, the share taken by respecting every species of moral obligation and legal privilege.

The exact nature of the contents of this volume will perhaps be most adequately conveyed to our readers, by the title-page to the last edition of it that has been published at Pekin. It is in these words: "Recently engraved in the 10th year of Kia-king, a new edition of the Laws and Statutes of the great dynasty of Tsing, comprising, agreeably to the universal compendium promulgated by the supreme Court of Judicature in the 6th year of Kia-king, all the additions and alterations which have been made of late years in the supplementary statutes; also compendious abstracts from the various commentaries, and an Appendix, consisting of two books of additional supplementary statutes." The terms here used are thus explained by Sir G. Staunton in his instructive preface:

> 'The *Leu*, or Fundamental Laws, are those of which the Penal Code, upon its formation soon after the accession of the present dynasty, appears originally to have consisted, and which, being, at least nominally, permanent, are reprinted in each successive edition, without either alteration or amendment.
>
> 'The *Lee*, or Supplementary Laws, are the modifications, extensions, and restrictions of the Fundamental Laws, which, after undergoing a deliberate examination in the Supreme Councils, and receiving the sanction of the Sovereign, are inserted in the form of clauses at the end of each article or section of the Code, in order that they might, together with the Fundamental Laws, be equally known and observed. They are generally, however, revised every fifth year, and subjected to such alterations as the wisdom of government determines to be expedient.'

'Under these two denominations,' continues Sir George, 'the whole body of Chinese Penal Law is comprehended:' but he very justly farther observes that, 'under a government in which every authenticated expression of the will of the Prince bears the character of a law, the actual number of laws must necessarily be unlimited.' It appears, accordingly, that new editions of this code, adopting from time to time the *Lee* or supplementary statutes promulgated by the reigning monarch, are very frequently *engraved*, while the *Tsing-leu*, or fundamental laws established by the present dynasty of *Tsing*, remain unaltered: but, as the two combined 'occupy, in so concise a language as the Chinese, no less than 2906 octavo pages,' Sir George Staunton wisely determined to give an entire translation of the latter only; throwing into an Appendix some occasional specimens of the former, which are diversified by several proclamations, and other documents of great interest.

The prefatory edict of the Emperor Shun-Chee, the first of the present dynasty, will shew in what manner the code was originally formed, and may serve as an example of a Chinese imperial edict :

'When we contemplate the progressive establishment of our dominions in the East, by our Royal Ancestors and immediate Predecessors, we observe that the simplicity of the people originally required but few laws ; and that, with the exception of crimes of extraordinary enormity, no punishments were inflicted besides those of the whip and the bamboo.

'Since, however, the Divine Will has been graciously pleased to entrust us with the administration of the Empire of China, a multitude of judicial proceedings in civil and criminal cases, arising out of the various dispositions and irregular passions of mankind in a great and populous nation, have successively occupied our Royal attention. Hence we have suffered much inconvenience, from the necessity we have been almost constantly under of either aggravating or mitigating the erroneous sentences of the magistrates ; who, previous to the re-establishment of a fixed Code of Penal Laws, were not in possession of any secure foundation, upon which they could build a just and equitable decision.

'A numerous body of magistrates was, therefore, assembled at the capital, by our command, for the purpose of revising the Penal Code, formerly in force under the late dynasty of Ming, and of digesting the same into a new Code, by the exclusion of such parts as were exceptionable, and the introduction of others, which were likely to contribute to the attainment of justice, and to the general perfection of the work.

'The result of their labours having been submitted to our examination, we maturely weighed and considered the various matter it contained, and then instructed a select number of our Great Officers of State, carefully to revise the whole, for the purpose of making such alterations and emendations as might still be found requisite.

'As soon as this object was accomplished, we issued our Royal authority for the impression and publication of the work, under the Title of "*Ta tsing leu chee kiay foo lee,*" or the general laws of the imperial dynasty, of *Tsing*, collected and explained, and accompanied by supplementary clauses.

'Wherefore, officers and magistrates of the interior and exterior departments of our empire, be it your care diligently to observe the same, and to forbear in future to give any decision, or to pass any sentence, according to your private sentiments, or upon your unsupported authority.

'Thus shall the magistrates and people look up with awe and submission to the justice of these institutions, as they find themselves respectively concerned in them : the transgressor will not fail to suffer a strict expiation for his offences, and will be the instrument of deterring others from similar misconduct ; and, finally, the government and the people will be equally secured for endless generations in the enjoyment of the happy effects of the great and noble virtues of our illustrious progenitors.

'Dated the 5th Moon, of the third year, of *Shun-Chee*, A. D. 1647.'

Each of the four succeeding Emperors has prefixed an admonitory discourse of similar import to his own edition; and Yong Tching in particular has given vent to his desire 'of adapting the penalties of the laws in a *just proportion* to the crimes against which they are denounced;'—a principle which appears to be at the bottom of the whole of this penal system, as if legal coercion were not employed on calculations of expediency, but for the mere purpose of satisfying the claims of rigid justice, of gratifying the vengeance of outraged law, and of expiating a certain definite portion of guilt by the correspondent and *proportional* suffering of the offender.

The *Leu*, however, though properly denominated the fundamental laws of China, must not be supposed to comprehend all the objects of legislation; since we are informed that 'the civil and military establishments, the public revenue and expenditure, the national rites and ceremonies, the public works, and the administration of public justice, are each of them regulated by a particular code of laws and institutions:' but it is immediately added that '*the laws of the empire*, in the strictest and most appropriate sense of the term, and which *may be denominated* PENAL LAWS *by way of contradistinction*, are the peculiar and exclusive province of the last of these departments.' The convenience of this distinction appears to be the sole reason for applying to these laws the title of *Penal*, which does not occur in any of the translated descriptions of them here borrowed from the Chinese. We cannot suppress a degree of doubt as to the propriety of the term, which might perhaps be correctly changed to *General*, if indeed any epithet be necessary; since we should deem it impossible for any one to read the details of these statutes without surprize at finding all the varieties of *civil* enactment introduced into a *penal* code. As we are here touching on the subject of the translation, though we have no means of detecting any impropriety in it except such as are furnished by the translator himself, we shall venture on another observation of a more general nature; and we frankly confess that the very perfection of the English style has inspired us with some diffidence of its absolute correctness as a version. When we consider the extreme diversity between the two idioms concerned,—the direct opposition between the two nations employing them in habits of general reasoning,—the comprehensive conciseness of the Chinese language,—and the occasional recurrence in the code to the figurative oriental style, with its necessarily constant employment of technical phrases,—(all which circumstances are distinctly stated by Sir

George Staunton,)—it strikes us as inconceivable that every word in the original should have found one so exactly corresponding with it in our own tongue, as to be in almost every instance with propriety substituted for it, without demur or explanation, without any expansion of its sense by periphrasis, or any approximation to it by means of expressions nearly synonimous. We trust that we shall not be understood to question the perfect accuracy of the translation, as far as the nature of the two languages will permit; not to doubt that the translator is fully acquainted with both, and has represented the one by the other with all *possible* fidelity: but, as entire fidelity seems unattainable, a more frequent avowal of the inadequacy of our language would have displayed no more than a laudable degree of caution in the translator, whose reasons for declining the task of direct interpretation could not in themselves have been uninstructive.

That some justice belongs to the foregoing criticism, a simple enumeration of the divisions into which this code is distributed will possibly induce our readers to suspect. The *first* of them, bearing here the title of 'General Laws,' consists of a single book, which is therefore without necessity designated as Book I., and which contains only 'Preliminary Regulations.' The *second* division, denominated 'Civil Laws,' comprises in Book I., the 'System of Government,' and in Book II. the 'Conduct of the Magistrates.' The *third* division, or 'Fiscal Laws,' begins with enacting the 'Enrolment of the people,' in Book I.; regulates 'Lands and Tenements' in Book II.; devotes Book III. to the important, but not very *fiscal*, subject of 'Marriage:' recurs in Book IV. to 'Public Property;' imposes 'Duties and Customs' in Book V.; protects 'Private Property' in Book VI.; and provides for the security of 'Sales and Markets' in Book VII. The *fourth* division, relating to 'Ritual Laws,' is confined to two books, under the heads of 'Sacred Rites,' and 'Miscellaneous Observances.' The *fifth* division (that of 'Military Laws,') consists of five heads in as many books; 1. 'The protection of the palace;' 2. 'Government of the Army;' 3. 'Protection of the frontier;' 4. 'Military horses and cattle;' 5. 'Expresses and public posts.' The *sixth* great division of the code is called 'Criminal Laws,' which are branched off into eleven books, on the several subjects of 'Robbery and Theft;' 'Homicide;' 'Quarrelling and Fighting;' 'Abusive Language;' 'Indictments and Informations;' 'Bribery and Corruption;' 'Forgeries and Frauds;' 'Incest and Adultery;' 'Miscellaneous Offences;' 'Arrests and Escapes;' and lastly, 'Imprisonment, Judgment, and Execution.' The *seventh* and concluding division, or the 'Laws relative to public works,' has two books only, on 'Public Buildings' and 'Public Ways.'

These divisions are preceded by various tables, establishing a scale of punishment for the offences described, and defining the instruments with which it is by law to be inflicted: but the very first section of the Preliminary Regulations enacts a permanent reduction in the sentence passed against offenders, —a provision singular enough to deserve quotation:

'The lowest degree of punishment is a moderate correction inflicted with the lesser bamboo, in order that the transgressor of the law may entertain a sense of shame for his past, and receive a salutary admonition with respect to his future, conduct. Of this species of punishment there are five degrees:

The first	nominally a punishment of	10 blows,	of which only	4 blows	are to be inflicted.
The second		20 blows,		5 blows	
The third		30 blows,		10 blows	
The fourth		40 blows,		15 blows	
The fifth		50 blows,		20 blows	

'The second degree, or division of punishment, is inflicted with the larger bamboo, and is subdivided in the following manner:

The first	nominally a punishment of	60 blows,	of which only	20 blows	are to be inflicted.
The second		70 blows,		25 blows	
The third		80 blows,		30 blows	
The fourth		90 blows,		35 blows	
The fifth		100 blows,		40 blows	

'The third division in the scale of punishments is, that of temporary banishment, to any distance not exceeding 500 *lee*, (150 miles) with the view of affording an opportunity of repentance and amendment. Of this species of punishment there are also five gradations; namely,

Banishment for	1 year, and 60 blows	with the bamboo, reduced as above.
	1½ year, and 70 blows	
	2 years, and 80 blows	
	2½ years, and 90 blows	
	3 years, and 100 blows	

'Perpetual banishment, the fourth degree of punishment in the order of severity, is subdivided as follows; and is reserved for such of the more considerable offences whereupon the life of the criminal is spared by the mercifulness of the laws:

100 blows with the bamboo, and perpetual banishment to the distance of	2000 *lee*.
	2500 *lee*.
	3000 *lee*.

'The fifth and ultimate punishment which the laws ordain, is death, either by strangulation, or by decollation.

'All criminals capitally convicted, except such atrocious offenders as are expressly directed to be executed without delay, are retained in prison for execution at a particular period in the autumn; the sentence passed upon each individual being first duly reported to, and ratified by, the Emperor.'

Without staying to remark on the strange peculiarity here exhibited, of a legal language which professes in general terms to signify one thing when it proclaims another, — which uniformly means twenty when it says sixty, and forty when it says an hundred, — we are disposed to ask a variety of questions as to the practical infliction of the punishment denounced, which we fear may to many persons appear abundantly puerile. The weight of the chastising weapon is defined by law : but we are prompted by our curiosity to make inquiries as to the degree of force with which it is applied, or rather to the effects produced by it in ordinary cases;—is it ever followed by death, or mutilation, or permanent disability ? Is the punishment of transgressors exhibited, as a wholesome example, to an assembled multitude; or performed without solemnity and without witnesses, as a simple atonement for the crime committed ? Is the executioner a brawny plebeian, or an officer possessed of rank and dignity ? If the former, is he an original or a deputed functionary; if the latter, does the inferior always shrink from the scourge of his superior ? Lastly, to what height in the scale of grandeur does the duty of flagellation extend; and does it ever fall to the lot of the august representative of Heaven to bestow personal correction on his corrupt or froward ministers ?

The catalogue above inserted amply justifies M. De Pauw in a remark, of which Sir George Staunton indeed in his preface reluctantly admits the truth,—" *les principaux ressorts du gouvernement Chinois sont le fouet et le baton;*" as if its founder had been some energetic Dr. Busby of the East : but the catalogue is imperfect. The translator subjoins to his admission, that ' neither these nor any other corporal punishments are in such universal use, nor administered with such undistinguishing severity, as has sometimes been imagined ;' he adds too, with a degree of rashness, we think, which he seldom betrays, that in an English book of drawings, published under the title of " *Punishments of China*, ' the *fancy of the painter* has given, in some instances, a representation of cruelties and of barbarous executions, which it would be very erroneous to suppose [to] have a place in the *ordinary* course of justice.' It is somewhat uncandid, we say, to attribute this fault to the *fancy of the painter* ; because Sir George, in the very next line, acknowleges not only that ' *something* of such a nature may, *no doubt*, have been practised heretofore,' but ' even perhaps,' he farther informs us, ' in the present age ;' though only, we are led to conclude, 'upon some particular and extraordinary occasions.' The present work does not describe the offences which call for the indelible branding of the forehead, the amputation of the toes and of the extremity of the nose, and castration: but these horrible inflictions are expressly said (p. xxii.) to be 'even now recognized and *in ordinary practice* in China.' We have remarked, also, in the case of various state-criminals mentioned in the Appendix, that it is considered as a matter of eminent grace and favour to permit a capital convict to execute the sentence of death with his own hands. It will be noticed as a peculiarity that imprisonment does not appear in the enumeration of penalties, but in some parts of the code it makes a part of capital sentences, as a kind of preparation for death. Fines are imposed in several instances, but principally, it should seem, for the collateral satisfaction of individuals whose property has been injured by the offence committed; or for an indemnity to the state against the consequences of fraud, embezzlement, and peculation, committed by persons in trust.

From the consideration of punishments, we pass to that of crimes; in which the perpetual solicitude of the legislator, to introduce the most absolute and rigorous certainty, is conspicuously displayed in some cases that are horrible, and in others that are only whimsical. The exact apportionment of the penalty to the transgression is likewise most studiously elaborated: but it is amusing to observe the *winged words* repeatedly bursting from the slavery to which they have been ineffectually condemned. We select an enactment from the book on the conduct of magistrates, which evidently both aims at and requires extreme precision, and forms a remarkable instance of the object not being accomplished:

'*Officers on detached Service not reporting their Proceedings.*

'Whoever, when detached upon any particular service by an Imperial mandate, does not render an account of such of his proceedings, upon the result of which other business may be depending, shall be punished with 100 blows.

'When detached on service by a mandate of any tribunal or department of government, and failing to render an account of the proceedings undertaken in consequence, the punishment shall likewise be 100 blows, provided military or other *affairs of much importance* are depending; if only *ordinary affairs* are depending, the punishment shall be limited to 70 blows.

'If any person, acting under such especial authority, *exceeds the limits of his commission, and encroaches upon the province of others,* he shall be punished with 50 blows.—If the individual employed under an Imperial mandate, does not deliver up his powers or credentials within three days after his return, he shall be punished with 60 blows

and

Another consequence may perhaps be traced to the same origin: we mean the multiplicity of respectful professions and ceremonious observances, which distinguish China from all the rest of the world, and which Sir George states to be very commonly substituted for the duties of morality. Of these we had collected many curious particulars: but we find the pressure of other materials of a more important nature becoming so urgent on us, that we shall dismiss the subject with a single observation of a general nature, the truth of which we doubt not that universal experience will confirm. When a natural sentiment is strained beyond the limits within which Nature has confined it, great danger is incurred of its being weakened, if not annihilated, and its place will most certainly be supplied by hypocrisy.

In the division of *Fiscal Laws*, the instinct of the love of property has dictated some sensible and (we should imagine) effectual regulations, which are however much too numerous and complicated for the purpose of extracts, though particular provisions are addressed directly to the ordinary feelings of human nature. We select the following:

'The officers and clerks officiating in any of the departments of government, which possess a territorial jurisdiction, shall not, during the exercise of their authority therein, purchase, or hold by purchase, any lands or tenements within the limits of such jurisdiction; whoever is convicted of a breach of this law shall suffer 50 blows, and be removed from his office, but shall not be thereby rendered incapable of holding offices under government elsewhere; the lands and tenements so unlawfully held shall be forfeited to government.'

On a similar principle, persons in office are prohibited from contracting the conjugal relation with those who are subjected to their authority:

'If any officer belonging to the government of a city of the first, second, or third order, marries, while in office, the wife or daughter of any inhabitant of the country under his jurisdiction, he shall be punished with 80 blows.

'If any officer of government marries the wife or daughter of any person having an interest in the legal proceedings at the same time under his investigation, he shall be punished with 100 blows, and the member of the family of the bride, who gave her away, shall be equally punishable. The woman, whether previously married or not, shall be restored to her parents, and the marriage-present forfeited in every case to government.

'If the officer of government accomplishes the marriage by the force or influence of his authority, his punishment shall be increased two degrees, and the family of the female, being in such a case exempt from responsibility, she shall, if previously single, be restored to her parents; and if previously married, to her former husband; the marriage-present shall not in either case be forfeited.

'If any officer of government, instead of marrying the female himself in any of the above cases, gives her in marriage to his son, grandson, younger brother, nephew, or other person belonging to his household, he shall be liable to the same punishment as aforesaid, but neither the bride nor the bridegroom shall suffer for such offence.

'When the marriage is a compensation for some unjust decision on a subject under the magistrate's investigation, the punishment shall be encreased as far as the law, applicable to such a deviation from justice, may authorize.'

Having touched on this interesting topic, we may now proceed to present our readers with the note which contains Sir G. Staunton's succinct description of the married state in China, and shall then pass to certain consequences resulting from it.

'The peculiar limitations,' says Sir George, 'under which polygamy is allowed in China require here some explanation, as it was impossible in translating the text, to distinguish by any terms strictly appropriate, the two modes of espousal which are established by the Chinese laws, and which are equally distinct in point of form as in their legal consequences.

'The first or principal wife is usually chosen for the husband by his parents or senior relations, out of a family equal in point of rank and of other circumstances to his own, and is espoused with as much splendour and ceremony as the parties can afford; and the bride, when she is received into the house of the bridegroom, acquires all the rights and privileges, which, under the degraded state of the female sex in Asiatic nations, can be supposed to belong to a lawful wife.

'A Chinese may afterwards lawfully espouse other wives, agreeably to his own choice, and with fewer ceremonies, as well as without any regard to equality in point of family and connexions: these wives are all subordinate to the first wife, but equal in rank among themselves. In describing this connexion, the term *inferior wife,* has been preferred to that of hand-maid, or concubine, as there are always certain forms of espousal, and as the children of such wives have a contingent right to the inheritance.'

The very title of the law which we are about to transcribe will excite the astonishment of our countrymen, and the alarm of our readers of the softer sex: 'Lending wives or daughters on hire!'—both, however, will be happy to see that such a traffic is exposed to the severest chastisement:

'Whoever lends any one of his wives, to be hired as a temporary wife, shall be punished with 80 blows,—whoever lends his daughter, in like manner, shall be punished with 60 blows; the wife or daughter in such cases, shall not be held responsible.

'Whoever, falsely representing any of his wives as his sister, gives her away in marriage, shall receive 100 blows, and the wife consenting thereto shall be punished with 80 blows.

'Those who knowingly receive in marriage the wives, or hire for a limited time the wives or daughters of others, shall participate equally in the aforesaid punishment, and the parties thus unlawfully connected shall be separated; the daughter shall be returned to her parents; and the wife to the family to which she originally belonged; the pecuniary consideration in each case shall be forfeited to government. Those who ignorantly receive such persons in marriage, contrary to the laws, shall be excused, and recover the amount of the marriage presents.'

Among all the various provisions respecting matrimony, some interdicting the union of relations by marriage or by blood,—others establishing the superiority of the first wife, over all subsequent help-mates,—others prohibiting all marriage during that large portion of human existence which, in China, must be set apart for the observance of particular ceremonies,—one short statute can scarcely fail to arrest the reader's notice, as exhibiting a very strange phænomenon in a widely extended society. It is as follows:

> 'Whenever any persons having the same family-name, intermarry, the parties and the contractor of the marriage shall each receive 60 blows, and the marriage being null and void, the man and woman shall be separated, and the marriage-presents forfeited to government.'

Those who recollect the fact here properly introduced by Sir George Staunton, in a marginal note on this curious law, will fully agree with him in his observation on the probable inconveniences of a similar incapacitation:

> 'The most usual term in the Chinese language for describing "the people or nation," is *Pe-sing*, or "the hundred names." Although the names of families in China are at present somewhat more numerous, they are very few in proportion to the immense population, and the restrictions imposed by this law upon marriage must therefore be often embarrassing and inconvenient, however little the choice and inclination of the parties themselves may, under any circumstances, be consulted.'

When the people of China were first designated as "the "hundred names," it is probable that their idea of numbers scarcely extended farther than a hundred; and that they considered themselves as assuming the magnificent character of an innumerable population, by placing the limit of their actual multitude at so great a distance from unity. It is also probable that, in the early stages of their civilization, the identity of name might furnish a reasonable presumption of relationship within the interdicted degrees: but the continuance of such an absurd and inconvenient regulation under circumstances so widely different, and indeed the very want of a more enlarged *nomenclature*, when the objects of it have been so prodigiously multiplied, are striking examples that the laws of

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The crimes of adultery and inc
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• **If a husband repudiates his first wife,**
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and without her having furnished him with
ing causes of divorce, he shall in every suc
80 blows. Moreover, although one of the
divorce should be chargeable upon the wife,
(2) lasciviousness; (3) disregard of her husb
ativeness; (5) thievish propensities; (6) env
per; and lastly, (7) inveterate infirmity;
reasons against a divorce should exist, namely
mourned three years for her husband's parents
ing become rich after having been poor previo
of marriage; and, (3) the wife having no pa
her back again; in these cases, none of the
causes will justify a divorce, and the husband wh
upon such grounds, shall suffer punishment two
last stated, and be obliged to receive her again.

• **If the wife shall have broken the matrimoni**
act of adultery, or by any other act,
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'If, previous to the expiration of a period of three years after a husband had deserted and been no more heard of by his wife, such wife, without giving notice at a tribunal of government, should likewise quit her home and abscond, she shall be punished with 80 blows; and the punishment shall be increased to 100 blows, if she should moreover presume to contract another marriage within such period.

'In all the foregoing cases, the first wife only is intended to be adverted to, but the laws in every instance shall be applied in cases of the inferior wives, upon a reduction being made in the punishment to the extent of two degrees for each offence.'

We must not, however, omit to exclaim against the extreme hardship of a law which allows to a husband seven justifying causes for repudiating his wife, without permitting her in any single instance, and under any provocation, to shake off the yoke of her lord and master. Yet this inequality is not peculiar to China; and though our courts of civil law may administer relief to the sufferings that must result from ill-assorted and incongruous matrimonial connections, it appears to be a real hardship that the best founded complaints of an injured female cannot possibly emancipate her *à vinculo matrimonii.*

Our rapid glance must now rest for a moment on some singular incidents, which the law of China attaches to the situation of state-officers. The following clause is perhaps the strongest demonstration ever given of the truth of Tacitus's maxim,—"*pessimum genus inimicorum laudantes*:"

'When any officers of the civil department of government, who have not distinguished themselves by extraordinary and great services to the state, are recommended to the consideration of the Emperor, as deserving of the highest hereditary honours; such officers, and those who recommend them, shall suffer death, by being beheaded, after remaining the usual period in prison.

'Nevertheless, those who are recommended to such honours in consequence of their being the lineal descendants of distinguished officers and magistrates, who by their valour and exertions had averted national calamities, protected the empire, and contributed to the establishment of the Imperial Family, shall be free from any liability to the penalties of this law.'

A similar severity is to be found in the sixtieth section:

'If an officer belonging to any of the departments of government, or any private individual, should address the Emperor in praise of the virtues, abilities, or successful administration, of any of His Majesty's confidential Ministers of State, it is to be considered as an evidence of the existence of a treasonable combination subversive of government, and shall therefore be investigated with the utmost strictness and accuracy: the cause and origin of these interested praises of persons high in rank and office being traced, the offending party shall suffer death, by being beheaded, after remaining in prison the usual period. — His wives and children shall become slaves, and his property shall be confiscated.

'If the confidential minister or great officer of the crown, to whom the address related, was privy to the design, he shall participate in the punishment of the offence; but otherwise, shall be excused.'

We add another clause conceived in the same spirit:

'*Monuments raised by Officers of Government to commemorate their own Actions.*

'If any officer of government during the period of his administration, presumes to raise within the limits of his district, public monuments displaying inscriptions in honour of himself, when he had in fact performed no service to the state worthy of such commemoration, he shall be punished with 100 blows.

'If an officer sends any person to his superior to solicit his sanction to the elevation of honorary monuments as aforesaid, upon the pretext of services falsely alleged to have been performed by him, he shall be punished with 80 blows, and the person who undertakes to convey the request under such circumstances shall suffer punishment less by one degree. The monuments undeservedly raised shall be destroyed, and the inscriptions effaced.'

Extended to our own country, such laws would often inflict a capital punishment, not only on the editor of a ministerial newspaper, but on every member of His Majesty's cabinet council; and we doubt whether the numerous pamphlets of the Right Hon. George Rose, in commendation of Mr. Pitt's successful management of public affairs, would not condemn their disinterested author to the *block!*

"*Di talem* nobis *avertite pestem!*"

The books, which relate to the government of the army and the protection of the frontier, do not require any particular observations; and that which considers robbery and theft abounds with such a vast variety of minutely-varying offences, that it defies abstract classification, and almost selection, within our fast-contracting limits. The following section is, however, worth transcribing; and its first sentence will somewhat startle the reader, who has observed the extraordinary obligation attached, in this paternal government, to all the duties of domestic life:

'*Stealing from Relations and Connections.*

'All persons found guilty of stealing from a relation by blood, or by marriage, in the first degree, shall suffer a punishment five degrees less severe than that which is legally inflicted in ordinary cases of theft to the same extent *.

'In

'* The mitigation of punishment provided by this law, in consideration of circumstances, which at first view appear to aggravate the guilt

'In like manner, all persons guilty of stealing from relations, in the second degree, shall suffer a punishment four degrees less severe than that legally inflicted in ordinary cases: — In the case of stealing from relations in the third degree, the punishment of the offenders shall be three degrees less than in ordinary cases: — In the case of stealing from relations in the fourth degree, the punishment shall be two degrees less than in ordinary cases; — and, lastly, the punishment of stealing from any relation, in a more remote degree than the aforesaid, shall be but one degree less than in ordinary cases.

'In general the punishment of the accessaries shall be one degree less severe than that of the principals in each case; but regard is always to be had, at the same time, to the relationship which such accessary bears, and not merely to that which the principal offender bears, to the person upon whom the theft is committed.

'Persons stealing from their relations shall not, as other thieves, be subject to be branded for their offences.

'In cases also of robbery among relations, that is to say, a violent as well as unlawful seizure of the property of a relation; when an elder relation is the offending party, a reduction in the punishment shall be allowed, similar to that already provided in cases of theft; but if the offending party is a junior relation, the punishment shall be the same as is inflicted in the ordinary cases of the commission of the same offence.

'If the robbery is accompanied by the additional crime of killing or wounding the relation who is plundered, the offender shall suffer for the assault, or for the robbery, according as the one or other offence proves, under all the circumstances of the case, the most severely punishable.

'If the junior of two relations residing together under the same roof introduces a stranger to steal the property of his elder relation, he shall suffer a punishment two degrees more severe than that provided by law for using and consuming, without permission, an equal amount of the joint family property, in ordinary cases: but the punishment of a relation in this case, shall never be so far increased, as to exceed 100 blows. — The stranger thus introduced to steal shall be punished one degree less severely than in ordinary cases of stealing, and not be branded.

'If hired servants or slaves steal from their masters, or from each other, the punishment shall be one degree less severe than in ordinary cases of theft, and the thief shall not be branded.'

The law of homicide in this code is the law of nature on the same subject, and would bear a very close resemblance to that which prevails in our own country, but for its complex division of previously conceived and possible modifications of man-

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guilt of the offender, is in fact easily reconciled with the general spirit of the code; as according to the Chinese patriarchal system, a theft is not in this case a violation of an exclusive right, but only of the *qualified* interest, which each individual has in his share of the family property.'

slaughter.—A section occurs, which devotes to death all those who murder with an intent to divide and mangle the body for magical purposes. Is this a barbarous fancy conceived in remote ages, and obsolete under a system less uncivilized: or does it still prevail, to the terror of Chinese anatomists, the law presuming, with a degree of ingenuity not surpassing its conjectures in several other cases, that the surgeon has intentionally murdered in the first instance all those on whom, after death, his dissecting-knife is employed? — Poisoning appears from this work to be of no rare occurrence in China; where punishment is also prepared for those who 'rear venomous animals, for the purpose of applying the same to the destruction of man.'

Respecting the subjects of fighting and quarrelling,—abusive language,—the respect due to the Imperial residences,—the preparation for the performance of ceremonies,—and the periods of mourning for different degrees of relations,—our limits will not permit us to offer to our readers even the most general notion of the provisions established by the law of China; though certainly all contain circumstances of the most curious and characteristic nature, and will repay a more particular investigation than most of our countrymen will be led by mere inclination to bestow on them. It is fair to add that the extracts which we have selected are not the parts of the work that are best calculated to exalt the legislative wisdom of the singular government in question, but are rather intended as examples of a style of thinking and legislating the most remote from our own habits. Several portions of the law exhibit far more enlightened views; and we have perused with a feeling of considerable interest many of the proclamations and state-papers, properly introduced into the Appendix, which will be found to contain a multiplicity of curious and instructive documents. We regret our inability to transfer some of these into our pages: but brevity is by no means the prevailing vice of Chinese composition.

On the whole, the present work, from which a large portion of information on novel, curious, and important subjects is derived, intitles the editor in an eminent degree to our gratitude and commendation. Some deductions, however, as we have more than once incidentally suggested, are to be made from the generality of this acknowlegement; and we cannot conclude without repeating our strong objections to his partialities in favour of a fraudulent, oppressive, and degrading system of law, and our decided protest against all the admiration which he claims on behalf of the '*paternal*' or *flogging* government of Imperial China.

Art. II. *Chronicle of the Cid, Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar the Campeador*, from the Spanish; by Robert Southey. 4to. pp. 468. 1l. 15s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Had this Chronicle been announced to the public as the translation of an old Spanish romance, and had not appeared in a ponderous quarto, but in a form that was better adapted to the circulating library, it might have escaped perhaps for a time the *bibliothecal* shelves of pedants and statesmen, but it would probably have been a general favourite, and both the leisure of business and the business of leisure would have been devoted to turning over its leaves. The Cid, indeed, is a hero very famous in the world of poetry and fiction; and his adventures, even when reduced to historic exactness, are so full of heroic enterprize, of romantic incident, and of marvellous revolution, that they combine the charm of a skilful invention with the illusion and credibility of attested fact.

These adventures are here told in the plain biblical style of the monkish chroniclers of the middle ages. Almost every sentence is ushered in with a conjunction, *and*, or *then*, or *but*, or *so:* yet the language, though somewhat diffuse, and apparently artless, is singularly precise and picturesque. This sort of narration allows the introduction of a thousand minute particulars of men and manners, which the dignity of modern history rejects, but which, in the lives of Plutarch, contribute so sensibly to the reader's interest, and to the display of human nature. Here the legendary stories find their natural place, and reveal the character of the prevailing superstitions. The moral reflections are not snatched from the observer to be appropriated by the historian, but are given with all their native raciness. Often the scenery of the events is sketched from nature; and the learned accuracy of the costume supplies the place of volumes of archæology. In short, every thing carries back the imagination to the times of the hero; and thus a truth and a strength of delineation, and a dramatic vivacity, are attained, which are more frequently combined by the novelist than by the historiographer.

In what degree the colouring of the poet has assisted to produce this effect may best be appreciated by analyzing the principal sources of information, whence the materials of the work are derived. The earliest historian of Rodrigo de Bivar, which was the family-name of this celebrated hero, is thought to have been a Moor, originally called Alfaraxi; who was promoted by the Cid * to be alcalde of Valencia, and who there embraced the Christian religion, into which he was baptized by the name of Gil Diaz. After the death of his patron, Diaz went to reside in the monastery of Cardēna, where the Cid had been interred, and where his will and charters of endowment were preserved. In this retreat, it is presumed that Gil Diaz wrote the first biography of the Cid in Arabic; as the lamentatation for Valencia appears to have been originally composed in that language. — Diego Gil, a nephew of Gil Diaz, who succeeded him as archivist, or librarian, of the monastery at Cardēna, is supposed to have first translated this life into Spanish, possibly under his uncle's direction, and to have made some additions to the primitive account; such as the legendary description of the translation of the Cid's body from Valencia to Cardēna.

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* He was called Cid, or Lord, by the Moors who paid tribute to him; and the term was adopted by the King.

In the time of King Alonzo the Wise, a Chronicle of Spain was made by his order, and under his inspection, which consists of four parts. It is recorded that the king drew up the first three; and that Loaysa, the archdeacon of Toledo, was employed to collect the materials: the fourth part was never retouched by the royal writer, but contains in their original form the documents which were provided. Among these, occurs a copy of the life of the Cid, obtained from the monastery at Cardēna; so that this biography was certainly in existence at the close of the thirteenth century. The Chronicle was first printed in 1541, under the care of Ocampo.

Whether the transcript inserted in the Chronicle of Spain was corrected and abridged by Loaysa from the proper manuscript of Cardēna, or whether the monks of Cardēna surrendered their original manuscript to king Alonzo, and made for themselves an expanded copy, considerable variations were found to exist. By order of Fernando the Catholic, the Cardēna manuscript also was printed, under the care of the Abbot Velorado, in the year 1552.

From these two diversely amplified transcripts of the same original biography, comes the chief ground-work of fact which is peculiar to the history before us; and this has been dilated, and the chasms filled up, by the help of the more general annalists. Some assistance also has been obtained from poetical sources, especially from the *Poema del Cid*, a rhimed chronicle, of which the oldest manuscript is dated in 1345, but of which the language is conjectured to be a century older. The *Romances del Cid*, which are traced back only to the latter part of the fifteenth century, have likewise been consulted; they exclusively supply the cause of the quarrel between Count Gomez and the Cid, which forms the fable of Corneille's tragedy. Of the *Poema del Cid*, Mr. Southey has given, in the Appendix, copious extracts, translated into the metre of the old English ballad.

An Introduction of forty pages is prefixed to the present work, and treats of the condition of Spain under the Mohammedan dynasties: a condition remarkably similar to that into which the interior of Hindoostan has lately fallen from the like cause. It may be defined a feudal anarchy, in which the military chieftain of each district assumed a practical independence, and levied the pay necessary for his followers on such individuals, or townships, as refused to compromise with his rapacity. Thus a class of *condottieri* was formed, of whom the Cid became the most eminent.

In attributing this situation of the peninsula to the unavoidable effects of the political and moral system of Mohammed, Mr. Southey is led to take a philosophic survey of its leading and peculiar features. Against polygamy he descants with just severity; and he shews that, where this pernicious system is established, neither connubial nor paternal, nor brotherly, affection can exist. Hence the unnatural murders with which the history of Asia abounds; and hence also the absolute forms of government; since the Mohammedan believes that despotism must be necessary in the state, because he finds it to be requisite at home. — In appreciating the Koran, Mr. Southey adds considerably to the disparaging criticism of Gibbon. (vol. v. p. 209.) 'There is nothing in the Koran,' he says, p. xviii. which affects the feelings, nothing which elevates the imagination, nothing which enlightens the understanding, nothing which ameliorates the heart; it contains no beautiful narrative, no proverbs of wisdom, or axioms of morality.' For passages which affect 'the tender feelings,' certainly the Koran is not remarkable: but for such as 'elevate the imagination,' we should not have supposed that the author of Thalaba would be at a loss; while the numberless texts, which assert the unity of God in opposition to the various classes of surrounding polytheists, — the repeated commands to read the scriptures, to prohibit no public worship, to use no violence in religion, and to endow schools, — and the various parables, and rational counsels, are surely to be ranked as precepts that tend to 'enlighten the understanding.' — To 'ameliorate the heart' is perhaps, after all our efforts, not within the power of any instruction: the finest sympathies and most generous feelings of the soul may be the gift of nature, and as indestructible as they are incommunicable by the rhapsodies of the moralist: but if to recommend the indulgence of generosity, charity, kindness, and mercy, — if to scatter praise and promise glory on munificence, forbearance, and humanity, — be favourable to the en-

"33. Those who can keep the fast, and do not, must redeem their neglect by maintaining a poor man. And he who voluntarily dealeth better with the poor than he is obliged, this shall be better for him.

"34. Consume not your wealth among yourselves in vain; nor present it unto judges, that ye may devour part of other men's substance unjustly.

"39. They will ask thee concerning orphans: Answer; "to deal righteously with them is best;" and if ye intermeddle with the management of what belongs to them, do them no wrong, they are your brethren: God knoweth the corrupt dealer from the righteous.

"40. God will not punish you for an inconsiderate word in your oaths; but he will punish you for that which your hearts have assented to.

"48. Let there be no violence in religion.

"50. A fair speech, and to forgive, is better than alms followed by mischief.

"51. O true believers, make not your alms of none effect by reproaching, or injury.

"O true believers, bestow alms of the good things ye have gained, and of that which is produced for you out of the earth, and choose not the bad thereof to give it in alms.

"The devil threateneth you with poverty, and commandeth you filthy covetousness; but God promiseth you pardon from himself and abundance.

"If ye make your alms to appear, it is well; but if ye conceal them, it is better.

"52. Deal not unjustly with others, and ye shall not be dealt with unjustly.

"53. If there be any debtor under a difficulty of paying his debt, let his creditor wait until it be easy for him to do it; but if ye remit it as alms, it will be better for you.

"O true believers; when ye bind yourselves one to the other in a debt for a certain time, write it down. Let a writer write between you according to justice. Call to witness two witnesses of your neighbouring men. Disdain not to write it down, be it a large debt, or be it a small one, until its time of payment. But if it be a present bargain which ye transmit between yourselves, it shall be no crime in you, if ye write it not down. If ye be on a journey, and find no writer, let pledges be taken. If one of you trust the other, let him who is trusted, return what he is trusted with, fearing God the Lord. And conceal not the testimony, for he who concealeth it hath surely a wicked heart: God knoweth what ye do.

"54. God will not force any soul beyond its capacity; it shall have the good which it gaineth, and it shall suffer the evil which it gaineth."——

Surely that book, in which a single (though a long) chapter contains so many incitements to piety, to veracity, to beneficence, to tolerance, to patience, to justice, should not be described as containing *no* 'proverbs of wisdom, nor axioms of morality;' with whatever other matter they may be mixed. The Mohammedans resident in the oriental empire of the British crown are a numerous and a powerful sect; and it is not of light importance to the conciliation of their confidence, and to the stability of their toleration, that their doctrine should be viewed by our statesmen with an unprejudiced if not with a friendly eye. Nor is it wholly a matter of indifference to prepare the minds of men at home for affording a hospitable indulgence to the peculiarities of the Mohammedans. The Red Sea and the Arabian coast have lately been explored by our hydrographers; and the fluctuations of dominion are pressing towards the Persian gulf the stations of Mohammedan power. With these countries a great intercourse by sea may shortly take place; and the many Levantine vessels, which are constantly at anchor in the Thames, may render necessary in Wapping the erection of a mosque. Let us then be disposed to view such a temple with the same complacency with which we tolerate the Synagogue of Duke's Place.

To this philosophic introduction suceeds the history itself.

The Chronicle of the Cid is here divided into eleven books, and each book into many sections, or paragraphs, to which a table of contents facilitates reference. Citations are placed in the margin, and critical notes at the bottom of the page.—The first remarkable incident is the strife between Count Gomez and Diego Laynez, the father of Rodrigo; and the consequent death of the Count by Rodrigo's hand. After this fatal duel, Ximena, the daughter of Count Gomez, very bluntly (§ v.) asks of the king this same Rodrigo in marriage. Mr. Southey calls her the third daughter, but Mariana (liv. ix. p. 425.) makes her the heiress of the Count. Corneille has often been blamed for covering with too thin a veil of piety the conduct of his Chimène; and for rendering the latter part of his play *comic*, by the unceremonious forwardness of the heroine: but the English historian justifies the colouring of the French dramatist, and assigns to the lady sentiments as unequivocal as those which occur in the line,

> "*Sors vainqueur d'un combat, dont Chimène est le prix.*"

This mode of delineation does not account for the traditional character of Ximena. In the Spanish Tragedy of Don Guillem de Castro, intitled *Mocedades del Cid*, which is probably the original source of Corneille's drama, the conduct of Ximena, though more romantic, is more heroic; and she really makes a sacrifice of inclination at the altar of filial piety. The king cuts the knot, but not at her suit; nor is her love revealed until she thinks that Rodrigo is dead. Granting that a tragedian is not to be trusted for his facts, he is likely to attend to received ideas of character; and if he paints Ximena as the heroine of honour and duty, this was probably her established reputation. Now the popular prevalence of such a reputation is evidence of the general current of historic testimony. If, as the ballads attest, her conduct was handed down as of the noble and generous kind, it is to be presumed that she really acquitted herself, in difficult circumstances, according to the nicest ideas of honour that were prevalent in that age. In this case, some steps in the process must have been omitted by the chronicler.

Several particulars of the youth of the Cid, not noticed in this chronicle, are to be found in the *Historia Verdadera del Cid*, by Don Hilario Santos Alonso; such as the acquisition of the title of *Alferez* for services rendered to Don Sancho. Some document preserved at Palencia is incidentally mentioned by this historian: but in the main he abridges Berganza.

An anecdote which is interesting, as it paints the superstition of the age, is thus related in the ninth section:

> 'Rodrigo forthwith set out upon the road, and took with him twenty knights. And as he went he did great good, and gave alms, feeding the poor and needy. And upon the way they found a leper, struggling in a quagmire, who cried out to them with a loud voice to help him for the love of God; and when Rodrigo heard this, he alighted from his beast and helped him, and placed him upon the beast before him, and carried him with him in this manner to the inn where he took up his lodging that night. At this were his knights little pleased. And when supper was ready he bade his knights take their seats, and he took the leper by the hand, and seated him next himself, and ate with him out of the same dish. The knights were greatly offended at this foul sight, insomuch that they rose up and left the chamber. But Rodrigo ordered a bed to be made ready for himself and for the leper, and they twain slept together. When it was midnight and Rodrigo was fast asleep, the leper breathed against him between his shoulders, and that breath was so strong that it passed through him, even through his breast; and he awoke being astounded, and felt for the leper by him, and found him not; and he began to call him, but there was no reply. Then he arose in fear and called for light, and it was brought him; and he looked for the leper and could see nothing; so he returned into the bed, leaving the light burning. And he began to think within himself what had happened, and of that breath which had passed through him, and how the leper was not there. After a while, as he was thus musing, there appeared before him one in white garments, who said unto him, Sleepest thou or wakest thou, Rodrigo? and he answered and said, I do not sleep: but who art thou that bringest with thee such brightness and so sweet an odour? Then said he, I am Saint Lazarus, and know that I was the leper to whom thou didst so much good and so great honour for the love of

God; and because thou didst this for his sake hath God now granted thee a great gift; for whensoever that breath which thou hast felt shall come upon thee, whatever thing thou desirest to do, and shalt then begin, that shalt thou accomplish to thy heart's desire, whether it be in battle or aught else, so that thy honour shall go on increasing from day to day; and thou shalt be feared both by Moors and Christians, and thy enemies shall never prevail against thee, and thou shalt die an honourable death in thine own house, and in thy renown, for God hath blessed thee; — therefore go thou on, and evermore persevere in doing good; and with that he disappeared. And Rodrigo arose and prayed to our lady and intercessor St. Mary, that she would pray to her blessed son for him to watch over both his body and soul in all his undertakings; and he continued in prayer till the day broke. Then he proceeded on his way, and performed his pilgrimage, doing much good for the love of God and of St. Mary.'

In a critical note subjoined to this passage, Mr. Southey gives up this anecdote as a mere monkish legend; the miracle, he observes, is 'common in hagiology,' and has also been related of Pope Leo IX., and of Simam Rodriguez. Perhaps, however, the story is deserving of confidence, as containing nothing contrary to the regular laws of human hallucination. The Cid finds a leper perishing of pain and want in a morass; and his pious humanity is so strongly excited, that he divides with the invalid his supper and his bed. The poor man, unable to avoid this excess of bounty, yet uneasy under it, takes the opportunity of the Cid's sleep to disappear. The Cid misses his bed-fellow, feels a coldness between his shoulders, (as we old bachelors often experience,) awakes, and, in a state of imperfect recollection, draws the inference that Saint Lazarus had been trying an experiment on his humanity, and was smiling from on high with approbation. The figure of Saint Lazarus is probably an internal apparition, copied in the Cid's fancy perhaps from the altar-piece of his parish-church. Rodrigo always had a peculiar veneration for Saint Lazarus, in whose honour he endowed an hospital at Palencia: whether he attributed to this Saint the fact of some fortunate recover from sickness, or had been directed by his parents and preceptors to such devotion, or found it essential in a General t provide a military hospital for a disease so common in armie as leprosy; the leprosy of the middle ages, for which Sain Lazarus was invoked, being evidently a form of syphilis.

This anecdote occurs both in the *Chronica del Cid* and in th *Chronica General*; it was certainly therefore a part of th Cardeña manuscript; and though repeated of Leo, and o Rodriguez, it was first told of the Cid. Why suspect th original relation?

Portio

Portions of narrative may be found which are far more to be suspected than those of a legendary complexion; the interspersed imitations of oriental historiography, where, by some hyperboles of phrase, and by some suppressions of the direct causes of events, an effect really true is made to appear improbable and marvellous, in order to exalt the reputation of the hero for prowess and resource. A paragraph of this class occurs in the seventeenth section of the second book, where the Cid, apparently unaccompanied, delivers King Don Sancho from thirteen knights, who were leading him away prisoner, and obtains from their generosity the gift of a lance, with which he puts them all off their guard. The real circumstance thus veiled appears to us to be that the Cid procured a voluntary release of Don Sancho, by promising to resign for him a prisoner of equal consideration in his own possession: but this promise not having been kept, the improbable tale of a forcible release was brought forwards to conceal the breach of contract. From the like ingenious fabrications of the chroniclers were afterward borrowed the adventures ascribed by the romancers to a Trystan or an Amadis. We should have been glad if Mr. Southey had more frequently rejected from his text such suspicious fragments of his authorities.

The whole third book is a living picture of the age. The frank and independent spirit of the Cid, in refusing to kiss the hand of king Alfonso until the expurgatory oath had been administered, the subsequent coolness of the monarch, and the eventual banishment of the Cid, are impressively recounted:

> 'Now my Cid knew the evil disposition of the King towards him, and when he received his bidding, he made answer that he would meet him between Burgos and Bivar. And the King went out from Burgos and came nigh unto Bivar; and the Cid came up to him and would have kissed his hand, but the King withheld it, and said angrily unto him, Ruydiez, quit my land. Then the Cid clapt spurs to the mule upon which he rode, and vaulted into a piece of ground which was his own inheritance, and answered, Sir, I am not in your land, but in my own. And the King replied full wrathfully, Go out of my kingdoms without any delay. And the Cid made answer, Give me then thirty days time, as is the right of the hidalgos; and the King said he would not, but that if he were not gone in nine days time he would come and look for him. The Counts were well pleased at this; but all the people of the land were sorrowful. And then the King and the Cid parted. And the Cid sent for all his friends and his kinsmen and vassals, and told them how King Don Alfonso had banished him from the land, and asked of them who would follow him into banishment, and who would remain at home. Then Alvar Fañez, who was his cousin-german, came forward and said, Cid, we will all go with you, through desert and through peopled country, and never fail you. In your

service will we spend our mules and horses, our wealth and our garments, and ever while we live be unto you loyal friends and vassals. And they all confirmed what Alvar Fañez had said ; and the Cid thanked them for their love, and said that there might come a time in which he should guerdon them.

'And as he was about to depart he looked back upon his own home, and when he saw his hall deserted, the household chests unfastened, the doors open, no cloaks hanging up, no seats in the porch, no hawks upon the perches, the tears came into his eyes, and he said, My enemies have done this . . God be praised for all things. And he turned towards the East, and knelt and said, Holy Mary Mother, and all Saints, pray to God for me, that he may give me strength to destroy all the Pagans, and to win enough from them to requite my friends therewith, and all those who follow and help me. Then he called for Alvar Fañez and said unto him, Cousin, the poor have no part in the wrong which the King hath done us ; see now that no wrong be done unto them along our road : and he called for his horse. And then an old woman who was standing at her door said Go, in a lucky minute, and make spoil of whatever you wish. And with this proverb he rode on, saying, Friends, by God's good pleasure we shall return to Castille with great honour and great gain. And as they went out from Bivar they had a crow on their right hand, and when they came to Burgos they had a crow on the left.'

At this period, the depression of the Cid's fortunes was greatest. He was forced to ask shelter for his wife and children in a monastery ; to abandon his home to confiscation ; and, without any other dependence than his name, and a few faithful followers, to sally forth, like a chief of banditti, in quest of subsistence, adventures, and renown. In order to accoutre these adherents, he was obliged to raise money by professing to pawn his family-plate ; and even this he somewhat fraudulently turns to double account. The nakedness with which the Chronicler relates that the Cid pledged two chests filled with sand to the Jews, making a condition that they should not be opened till after an interval of twelve months, is symptomatic of exact veracity ; since a varnisher of facts would have suppressed the incident as derogatory. The coffers pledged are said by Don Hilario to be still in being. *Historia Verdadera*, p. 24.

In the fourth book, the situation of the Cid rapidly amends. He takes castles, cities, provinces, and gains a signal victory over confederated Moorish kings. He repays those who had advanced him money ; devotes to the convent, in which he had placed his wife, a portion of his spoil; and attempts the reconciliation of his king by the gift of another portion. Alfonso in consequence took into his service Diego Rodriguez, the young son of the Cid.

Book V.

ok V. exhibits Alfonso, with the Cid's assistance, reduc-oledo : but the only son of the Cid falls in battle ; the :cepts the appointment of Alcalde of Toledo, and becomes ed with the superintendance of those districts, which led o interfere in the politics of Valencia.

the sixth book, the interior state of Valencia is curiously d. Jerusalem during its decline and fall, Constantinople the Sultans, and Algiers under its Deys, afford exam-f analogous anarchy. A fine lamentation over the mis-ies of the city, translated from the Arabic of Alfaraxi, is given :

alencia ! Valencia ! trouble is come upon thee, and thou art in ur of death ; and if peradventure thou shouldst escape it will be der to all that shall behold thee.

ut if ever God had shown mercy to any place, let him be d to show mercy unto thee ; for thy name was joy, and all delighted in thee and took their pleasure in thee.

nd if it should please God utterly to destroy thee now, it will thy great sins, and for the great presumption which thou in thy pride.

he four corner stones whereon thou art founded would meet er and lament for thee, if they could !

hy strong wall which is founded upon these four stones trem-ind is about to fall, and hath lost all its strength.

hy lofty and fair towers which were seen from afar, and rejoiced arts of the people, . . little by little they are falling.

hy white battlements, which glittered afar off, have lost their with which they shone like the sunbeams.

hy noble river Guadalaver, with all the other waters with which hast been served so well, have left their channel, and now they here they should not.

'hy water-courses which were so clear and of such great profit many, for lack of cleansing are choked with mud.

'hy pleasant gardens which were round about thee ; . . the ra-s wolf hath gnawn at the roots, and the trees can yield thee no

'hy goodly fields, with so many and such fair flowers, wherein eople were wont to take their pastime, are all dried up.

'hy noble harbour, which was so great honour to thee, is de-l of all the nobleness which was wont to come into it for thy

'he fire hath laid waste the lands of which thou wert called ess, and the great smoke thereof reacheth thee.

'here is no medicine for thy sore infirmity, and the physicians ir of healing thee.

'alencia ! Valencia ! from a broken heart have I uttered all these s which I have said of thee.

And this grief would I keep unto myself that none should know it were not needful that it should be known to all.'

The taking of the horse *Bavieca* by Martin Pelaez, on the day on which the king of Seville was discomfited, is an anecdote preserved by Don Hilario in the *Historia Verdadera*, vol. ii. p. 9.

In book VII. the Cid acquires Valencia from the Moors, and makes it a Christian bishopric, turning nine mosques into parish-churches. He stations himself there as an independent sovereign; brings home from the convent his wife and daughters, who reside with him in regal state; and the Infantes of Carrion, young noblemen of the first pretensions, solicit the interference of king Alfonso to marry them with the daughters of the Cid. This is the period of his highest prosperity.

Book VIII. relates that this marriage, however illustrious, was unfortunate. In fact, the Cid was deservedly punished for not selecting the husbands of his daughters from among the persons of merit who had adhered to his adversity, and contributed to his elevation. The Infantes were cowardly and insolent; they coveted only the dower, and expected to be at liberty to treat their wives as low persons, whom they were not to honour with their society. The Cid, therefore, sent Alvar Fañez, who ought to have been made the representative of the family, to bring back his daughters. How could this marriage be annulled without papal interference?

In the ninth book, the Infantes and the Cid bring the question of the separation before king Alfonso, and a judgment of God is appointed; that is, a duel between the champions of each party. The following book therefore introduces us to the combat, which is decided in behalf of the Cid's fighting-men. A colouring of romance overspreads this narrative occasionally: but Mariana (liv. x. p. 478.) entirely adopts and confirms the account here given; and Don Hilario farther adds that the women were divorced by a decree of the bishop of Valencia, Hieronymo. (See *Historia Verdadera*, vol. ii. p. 25.) The dispensing power of the pope could not as yet have been recognized in Spain, since it was not sought on this occasion.— Meanwhile, the Moors had been negotiating in Africa for armed assistance to recover Valencia from the Christians. The Cid also was now declining through age and infirmity, and died after a month's illness, having publicly confessed his sins, and made his will. His body was removed for interment to Cardẽna. — About the period of his decease, King Bucar, with a vast force of Moorish troops, came to lay siege to Valencia; which the Christian inhabitants, disheartened by the death of their champion, were induced to evacuate; and thus were swept away all traces of the empire and greatness of the Cid. These transactions fill the eleventh and concluding book.

Some analogy of personal character may be traced between the *Cid* of Spanish and the *David* of Jewish history. Courage, magnanimity, munificence, zeal for religion and for the priesthood, habitually distinguished both; yet in emergencies they could each occasionally avail themselves of unfair resources. David, however, was the greater man; he had more accomplishment, prudence, and far-sighted ambition: while Rodrigo was more frank and disinterested, and had more friendliness, and a severer domestic morality. In both cases, the original documents consist of two diversely amplified transcripts of the same biography, and of a nearly contemporary poem.—We may discover also a resemblance of progressive attainment between the nabob George Thomas, (of whom Captain William Francklin lately published at Calcutta so curious a memoir,) and the Cid. The similar anarchy of their respective countries enabled them to collect military bands; with which, sometimes in alliance with and sometimes in defiance of the sovereign, they acquired and ruled entire and populous provinces, with a power differing only in name from royalty.

Biography is an useful study to all; and lives of this kind are especially adapted for young men of military distinction. They tend to excite a spirit of adventure, and to awaken ambitious hopes; they suggest forms of enterprize, and inure the thoughts to variety of resource; and they correct the love of praise, by explaining which are the vices that fame forgives, and which of the virtues are the darlings of glory.

At a time when it was important for Great Britain to conciliate the good will of Spain, and to awaken sympathies between those leading men whose influence or example was to effect a confident alliance and a popular co-operation between the two countries, it was patriotism to undertake the translation of a Chronicle of the Cid. Such a book was well adapted to found and to strengthen national sympathies, favourable to the independence of the peninsula and to the liberties of mankind. What bond so speedily unites the leading minds of different communities, as the study of the same models, and the celebration of the same worthies? The piety of ambition chiefly consists in the contemplation of merit; and the worship of heroes is the natural religion of those who aspire to glory. Whatever interest is taken at London, in the history and literature of the Spaniards, prepares among the Cortes a retributive veneration for British excellence.

While independence is the sacred purpose of achievement, those men of other times should be selected for attention, distinction, and applause, who have stood self-supported amid the storms of royal or the hurricanes of popular desertion;

and who, by innate resources, have known how to assert a sovereignty that was coextensive with the bravery and honour, with the esteem and fidelity, of men of soul. Such was the Cid; — and Mr. Southey, in detailing the history of his exploits, has made a new and a lasting addition to our domestic stock of books. It is philosophic history in the form of cotemporary history, and unites the interest of coeval with the instruction of distantly contemplated records.

ART. III. *Poems on the Abolition of the Slave-Trade;* written by James Montgomery, James Grahame, and E. Benger. Embellished with Engravings from Pictures painted by R. Smirke, Esq. R. A. 4to. pp. 141. 3l. 3s. (Large Paper, 5l. 5s.) Boards. Bowyer.

ART. IV. *The West Indies, and other Poems,* by James Montgomery, Author of the Wanderer of Switzerland*. Second Edition. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

CHRISTIANITY is pre-eminently the religion of benevolence; and they in whose souls this principle is the master-passion catch the pure inspiration of the Divine Saviour of the world. Sharpe, Clarkson, and Wilberforce will ever be venerated as Christians indeed; their virtues shed lustre on an age of vice and selfishness; and it is honourable to the British legislature that the voice of such men, aided by the first talents of the state, ultimately prevailed. This splendid victory of humanity over unfeeling avarice merits a splendid record. It is a subject for the artist; it is a subject for the muse: — the man of feeling will delight to contemplate it; the man of genius will rejoice to do it honour. That the Slave-Trade should have existed and been patronized is a dark stain on the past ages: but that it is now abolished is a circumstance in the present age which must cover a multitude of its sins. — With strong prepossessions in its favour, therefore, we welcomed Mr. Bowyer's elegant publication on the Abolition of this traffic; and we congratulate the poets, the artist, and the editor, who have contributed to celebrate a transaction so glorious in itself, so characteristic of the exaltation of moral feeling, and so pregnant with blessings to the whole African race. The volume forms a very fine specimen of typography, and, besides other engravings, contains three portraits engraved from busts of Granville Sharpe, Thomas Clarkson, and William Wilberforce, accompanied by short notices of these eminent philanthropists.

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* See M. R. Vol. l. N. S. p. 436.

The first poem, intitled 'The West Indies,' in four books, James Montgomery, was undertaken, as we learn from the face, at the request of Mr. Bowyer in May 1807, and was t to the press Dec. 1, 1808. Fired by his subject, Mr. M.'s mbers are animated and nervous: his pictures are well ceived; and his execution of them, while it manifests the ength of his own feelings, must awaken the strongest emo- ns in his readers. The poem opens with the discovery of erica by Columbus, and with a delineation of the West In- islands; whence the author passes to the invasion of the ribs by the Spaniards, and thus describes their exterminat- cruelty:

> 'Dreadful as hurricanes, athwart the main
> Rush'd the fell legions of invading Spain;
> With fraud and force, with false and fatal breath,
> (Submission bondage, and resistance death,)
> They swept the isles. In vain the simple race
> Kneel'd to the iron sceptre of their grace,
> Or with weak arms their fiery vengeance braved;
> They came, they saw, they conquer'd, they enslaved,
> And they destroy'd;—the generous heart they broke,
> They crush'd the timid neck beneath the yoke;
> Where'er to battle march'd their grim array,
> The sword of conquest plough'd resistless way;
> Where'er from cruel toil they sought repose,
> Around, the fires of devastation rose.
> The Indian, as he turn'd his head in flight,
> Beheld his cottage flaming through the night,
> And, midst the shrieks of murder on the wind,
> Heard the mute blood-hound's death-step close behind.
>
> 'The conflict o'er, the valiant in their graves,
> The wretched remnant dwindled into slaves;
> Condemn'd in cells of pestilence and gloom,
> To dig for treasures in his mother's womb,
> The miner, sick of life-protracting breath,
> Inhaled with joy the fire-damp blast of death:
> —Condemn'd to fell the mountain-palm on high,
> That cast its shadow from the evening sky,
> Ere the tree trembled to his feeble stroke,
> The woodman languish'd, and his heart-strings broke:
> —Condemn'd in torrid noon, with palsy'd hand,
> To urge the slow plough o'er the obdurate land,
> The labourer, smitten by the sun's fierce ray,
> A corpse along the unfinish'd furrow lay.
> O'erwhelm'd at length with ignominious toil,
> Mingling their barren ashes with the soil,
> Down to the dust the Charib people pass'd,
> Like autumn foliage withering in the blast:

The whole race sunk beneath the oppressor's rod,
And left a blank among the works of God.'

What sufferings does not Spain deserve for the infliction of these extensive and unmerited cruelties! The Spaniard, having desolated the isles which he discovered, looks to Africa for a supply of slaves to cultivate the cane, pursues measures for thence obtaining slaves, and is followed by the mercenary spirit of other European states. Yes, Britannia followed;

'She shar'd the gain, the glory and the guilt,
By her were Slavery's island-altars built
And fed with human victims.'——

Having beautifully displayed that strong passion, the love of country and of home, which all feel, the poet tranports us to Africa, and harrows up our souls by a description of the poor negro torn by violence from his native land, to toil in hopeless slavery and expire with grief in the West Indies.

'—'Twas night: his babes around him lay at rest,
Their mother slumber'd on their father's breast:
A yell of murder rang around their bed;
They woke; their cottage blazed: the victims fled;
Forth sprang the ambush'd ruffians on their prey,
They caught, they bound, they drove them far away;
The white man bought them at the mart of blood;
In pestilential barks they cross'd the flood;
Then were the wretched ones asunder torn,
To distant isles, to separate bondage borne,
Denied, though sought with tears, the sad relief
That misery loves,—the fellowship of grief.

'The negro, spoiled of all that nature gave
The freeborn man, thus shrunk into a slave,
His passive limbs to measured tasks confined,
Obeyed the impulse of another mind;
A silent, secret, terrible controul,
That ruled his sinews, and repress'd his soul.
Not for himself he waked at morning-light,
Toil'd the long day, and sought repose at night:
His rest, his labour, pastime, strength, and health,
Were only portions of a master's wealth;
His love—O, name not love, where Britons doom
The fruit of love to slavery from the womb.

'Thus spurn'd, degraded, trampled, and oppress'd,
The negro-exile languish'd in the west,
With nothing left of life but hated breath,
And not a hope except the hope in death,
To fly for ever from the Creole-strand,
And dwell a freeman in his father's land.'

ictures of the slave-dealer and of the Creole follow. We
e the latter:

‘ Lives there a reptile baser than the slave?
—Loathsome as death, corrupted as the grave,
See the dull Creole, at his pompous board,
Attendant vassals cringing round their lord;
Satiate with food, his heavy eye-lids close,
Voluptuous minions fan him to repose;
Prone on the noon-day couch he lolls in vain,
Delirious slumbers rock his maudlin brain;
He starts in horror from bewildering dreams,
His bloodshot eye with fire and frenzy gleams;
He stalks abroad; through all his wonted rounds,
The negro trembles, and the lash resounds,
And cries of anguish, shrilling through the air,
To distant fields his dread approach declare.
Mark, as he passes, every head declined;
Then slowly raised,—to curse him from behind.
This is the veriest wretch on nature’s face,
Own’d by no country, spurn’d by every race;
The tether’d tyrant of one narrow span,
The bloated vampire of a living man;
His frame,—a fungus form, of dunghill birth,
That taints the air, and rots above the earth;
His soul;—has *he* a soul, whole sensual breast
Of selfish passions is a serpent’s nest?
Who follows headlong, ignorant, and blind,
The vague brute-instinct of an idiot mind;
Whose heart, midst scenes of suffering senseless grown,
Ev’n in his mother’s lap was chill’d to stone;
Whose torpid pulse no social feelings move;
A stranger to the tenderness of love,
His motley haram charms his gloating eye,
Where ebon, brown, and olive beauties vie;
His children, sprung alike from sloth and vice,
Are born his slaves, and loved at market price:
Has *he* a soul?—With his departing breath,
A form shall hail him at the gates of death,
The spectre Conscience,—shrieking through the gloom,
‘ Man, we shall meet again beyond the tomb.’

In the last book, Mr. M. proceeds to throw light on his
omy subject; the picture of Africa’s woes is brightened by
dawn of deliverance; and with appropriate praise the Bri-
heroes who advocated her cause are introduced:

‘ Thus Africa, entranced with sorrow, stood,
Her fix’d eye gleaming on the restless flood:
—When Sharpe, on proud Britannia’s charter’d shore,
From Lybian limbs the unsanction’d fetters tore,

And taught the world, that while she rules the waves,
Her soil is freedom to the feet of slaves:
—When Clarkson his victorious course began
Unyielding in the cause of God and man,
Wise, patient, persevering to the end,
No guile could thwart, no power his purpose bend,
He rose o'er Afric like the sun in smiles,
He rests in glory on the western isles:
—When Wilberforce, the minister of grace,
The new Las Casas of a ruin'd race,
With angel-might opposed the rage of hell,
And fought like Michael, till the dragon fell:
—When Pitt, supreme amid the senate, rose
The Negro's friend among the Negro's foes;
Yet while his tones like heaven's high thunder broke,
No fire descended to consume the yoke:
—When Fox, all-eloquent for freedom stood,
With speech resistless as the voice of blood,
The voice that cries through all the Patriot's veins,
When at his feet his country groans in chains;
The voice that whispers in the mother's breast,
When smiles her infant in his rosy rest;
Of power to bid the storm of passion roll,
Or touch with sweetest tenderness the soul.
He spake in vain; — till, with his latest breath,
He broke the spell of Africa in death.'

Poets being allied to prophets, Mr. M. concludes by happy anticipations, and contemplates the progression of the world to a millenium-state. His visions may not be realized to the extent which he imagines: but the sentiments by which his muse is uniformly animated, and the flowing of his numbers, will leave an impression favourable at once to his genius and his heart.

To the next poem, intitled 'Africa delivered; or the Slave-Trade abolished,' by James Grahame, we cannot extend the same praise which the muse of Mr. Montgomery has extorted from us: though to the writer's poetic energy in reprobating the trade of blood, and in holding it up to execration, we are willing to bear testimony. His blank-verse is occasionally prosaic, but the subject is well managed; and the scenes of the negro's capture in his native land, of the middle passage, of West India servitude, and the accumulated sufferings and extensive mortality on board the slave-ships, especially when becalmed, are feelingly portrayed. Of the last mentioned description we cannot extract the whole, but shall take the conclusion, with the subsequent reflections, as a specimen of Mr. Grahame's powers:

'Slight mitigation of the seaman's lot
The shades of evening bring: but who in words
The aggravated misery can unfold
Of the poor slaves, who, thrust below, endure
The double deprivation, water, air;
With horror at the picture fancy draws,
Language, appalled, shrinks faultering from the task.

'O God! how large a portion of the ills
Of human kind derives itself from man!
Deeming the land too narrow for his crimes
He penetrates the desarts of the main.
How sad the contrast 'twixt that floating scene,
That little world of misery condensed,
By man created, and the view around
Of Nature's works! how peaceful Ocean lies
Unseen, reflecting all the heavenly host,
While to the rolling eye, above, below,
Wide sparkles, not a single hemisphere
But one vast concave globe of radiant orbs.

'Seven days and nights the deep a mirror lay
To sun and moon and stars; and ere the wind
Began again to whisper through the shrouds,
The living scarce were equal to the work
Of burying the dead; the dying hear
The frequent plunge, and clasp their hands in prayer,
That their appointed hour may be the next;
Contending sharks, full many a fathom down,
Are seen in act of tearing limb from limb
The sinking corpse, that finds a living grave.'

Mr. G. exclaims, in another part of his poem,

'What hecatombs of human beings die
Upon thy altar, Commerce?'

And hails 'Africa restored to human rights.'

The last poem, 'occasioned by the Abolition of the Slave-Trade in 1806,' presents the same general views, but is more copious in moral reflections. The verse is generally flowing, but not very forcible; and, if we except *wealth* and *path*, (p. 127.) the rhimes are legitimate. While Miss Benger exults in the thought that the African's chain is broken, she endeavours to prove that the abolition of the Slave-Trade is not unfavourable to commercial interests, though she wishes to impress the nobler truth that national greatness depends more on virtue than on commerce:

'Is commerce all? shall her omnific word
Impart its valour to the hero's sword?
Has she a gale as pure as honour's breath
Through life unsullied, and serene in death?
Know, virtue only can the strength create

That clothes in native majesty a state ;
Virtue alone that sacred spirit pours
With which the hero springs, the patriot soars ;
Oh ! youth of notions ! loveliest in thy might,
Whose eyes diffuse the ever radiant light ;
Virtue, thou breath'st of life untam'd by time,
Thine is the impulse and the power sublime :
The firm, unconquerable will is thine,
Force passing strength, the energy divine.

'Know, Commerce follows Nature's social laws
As peace or charity her blessing draws—
Still shall she bear from Afric's genial plains
Their native wealth, though man untouch'd remains.'

'Let Britain's sons the fruitful coast explore
And kindly bless the race they wrong'd before ;
With gentle promises invite to toil,
With precious gifts endow the docile soil ;
Till Afric's race in grateful reverence bend,
And hail the teacher where they find the friend.'

The sentiments which these three poems breathe are truly Christian and philosophic, are worthy of being recommended in the noblest strains of poetry, and, if they could be generally diffused, would promote the happiness of the great family of mankind.

The plates which embellish this elegant volume are adapted to particular passages in the several poems, and, as engravings, are neatly executed : but they do not display the creative mind of the artist improving on the thoughts of the poet.

In the small volume of which Mr. Montgomery is the sole author, the first poem in Mr. Bowyer's splendid publication is re-printed, with some few alterations ; and seventeen smaller compositions are subjoined, in all of which the author's poetic genius is conspicuous. A plaintive strain runs through these effusions, but it is a strain embellished with thought. His stanzas, intitled *A Walk in Spring*, though enlivened by vernal description, terminate with a sombre but just reflection :

''Twas Spring ;—my former haunts I found,
My favourite flowers adorn'd the ground,
  My darling minstrels play'd ;
The mountains were with sunset crown'd,
  The valleys dun with shade.

'With lorn delight the scene I view'd,
Past joys and sorrows were renew'd ;
  My infant hopes and fears
Look'd lovely, through the solitude
  Of retrospective years.

'And still, in Memory's twilight bowers,
The spirits of departed hours,
With mellowing tints, pourtray
The blossoms of life's vernal flowers,
For ever fall'n away.

'Till youth's delirious dream is o'er,
Sanguine with hope we look before,
The future good to find;
In age, when error charms no more,
For bliss we look behind.'

The poem called the *Dial* reminds us that the shadow on its face is 'the scythe of time,' though

'A shadow only to the eye;
Yet, in its calm career,
It levels all beneath the sky;
And still, through each succeeding year,
Right onward, with resistless power,
Its stroke shall darken every hour,
Till Nature's race be run,
And Time's last shadow shall eclipse the sun.'

Perhaps a mole burrowing in a church-yard occasioned the poem intitled the *Mole-Hill,* in which Mr. M. moralizes to the same tune as the grave-diggers in Hamlet, but more at length. Speaking of the Mole, he says,

'But, O! whene'er she turns the ground
My kindred earth I see;
Once every atom of this mound
Lived, breathed, and felt like me.'

The loss of Sir Thomas Trowbridge in the Blenheim, during a storm in the Indian ocean, occasions an affecting poem, under the title of the *Cast-away Ship;* and the volume concludes with some pathetic lines '*to the Memory of a Female whom sickness had reconciled to the "Notes of Sorrow,"* who corresponded with the author under this signature, on the first publication of his poems (the Wanderer of Switzerland, &c.) in 1806, but died soon afterward, when her real name and merits were disclosed to him by one of her surviving friends.' The apostrophe to the sainted Fair-one is too beautiful to be omitted:

'O Thou, who wert on earth unknown,
Companion of my thought alone,
Unchang'd in heaven to me thou art,
Still hold communion with my heart;
Cheer thou my hopes, exalt my views,
Be the good angel of my Muse;
—And if to thine approving ear

riding of that County. It measures nearly forty miles long and eighteen broad, and consists of thirty-four parishes and eighty townships.

On perusing this volume, we had the satisfaction of observing that the author was well qualified for his undertaking; and that, with a spirit for minute research, he possessed industry in collecting materials, and judgment in arranging them. The introduction contains many interesting particulars respecting the antient history of Cleveland; which, although belonging to the county at large, and not new, will here be perused with pleasure, as being detailed in a concise and perspicuous manner. In his general account, Mr. Graves draws a very flattering picture of the district; and as such representations are rare, we shall extract it for the perusal of our readers. To the good character of the farmers, he adds:

'That the lower and labouring classes of inhabitants are generally sober and orderly in their conduct, decent in their demeanour and appearance, and deserving of every indulgence from their superiors, that may render their situation comfortable and easy.

'But the circumstance most favourable to the general interest of the district, is the almost constant residence of many of the principal proprietors of estates, who, by their example, give encouragement to the improved modes of agriculture; and by whose influence and authority, the roads are kept in a very superior state of repair; justice is impartially administered; and thereby the good order and comfort of individuals, and the general happiness and prosperity of the country, are invariably consulted and promoted.'

If this picture be not overcharged, we must congratulate the inhabitants on their happy state, and express our wishes that it may long continue.

The topography of Cleveland is thus sketched:

'The *climate*, though colder than the more southern parts of the country, from its vicinity to the sea, is nevertheless healthy and invigorating. The soil is various; in the vale of Cleveland, a fertile clay generally prevails, with some rich and gravelly loam, particularly near the banks of rivers, which produce abundant crops of corn and grass. In the eastern part of the district, which is more mountainous, and towards the coast, the soil is barren, being chiefly a stiff red clay, upon an *allum shale*; which, as we approach the moors, inclines to black, and at last terminates in a rotten peat-moss-earth. The vale bordering the river Esk is of a light sandy soil; which, however, does not extend far, before it degenerates into a cold and barren clay.

'The surface, on the eastern part of Cleveland, and near the coast, is bold and hilly; but inclosing some rich and fertile vales, well watered, and ornamented with pieces of wood-land.

'Between Guisborough and Whitby, as the traveller pursues his road,

——— ——— " A dreary waste
" Of lands uncultivated,"

presents itself, covered with heath and fern, and " abounding in rugged hills and deep morasses, which seem never to have been made subservient to the uses of society."

'On the west, a range of hills, of considerable elevation, stretches along the southern confines of the district, in an undulating manner; in front of which, the country spreads out, for many miles, into an extensive plain, interspersed with some gently rising grounds and pleasant vales.

'The fields are invariably divided by quick-set hedges, which, with the trees planted in hedge-rows, and pieces of woodland scattered on the banks of the rivers, and the thriving plantations around the gentlemen's houses, conspire to give the country a rich, pleasing and cheerful aspect.

'The coast, from the mouth of the river Tees, lies open, as far as Hunteliffe, when the cliffs eastwards rise to a considerable height, steep, and rocky; the feet of which are washed by the sea. Of this part of the coast, the Cott. MS. affords us the following quaint description.

" Alonge the shoare the sandes lye fayre and levell, till you arrive at a high hill, called Huntly Nabb; there the coaste begins to rise high, full of craggs and steepe rocks, wherein meawes, pidgeons, and seafowle breade plentifully. Here, the sea castinge up peble stones maketh the coaste troublesome to passe."

'Cleveland being chiefly an agricultural district, and as little connected perhaps with *manufactures**, as any part of the kingdom of equal extent, its population, as might be expected, is by no means large. From the returns made to government in the year 1801, according to act of Parliament, the total number of inhabitants was 26,358; and considering, that the property within the district is stationary in its nature, no material alteration, in point of number, is since that time likely to have taken place.'

In mentioning Huntcliffe, Mr. Graves subjoins a note containing the translation of some *Greek* verses by Mr. Hall, a Yorkshire gentleman, a poet, and author of *Crazy Tales*, from which he obtained the name of *Crazy-Hall:* but, in speaking elsewhere of this writer, Mr. Graves is too lenient to the disgraceful

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'* The manufacture of coarse linens, which is the principal one within the district, has, in its present state, been so far from proving prejudicial either to the health or morals of the individuals concerned in it, that it may fairly be considered, not only as the cause of an increase in population, but also prove advantageous to the state of agriculture, by increasing the profits of some of the lower classes and consequently advancing the value of the produce of the land.'

ful licentiousness of his muse. — We copy the lines before us, which have no such character :

‘ The following lines, descriptive of this part of Cleveland, and addressed to the gentlemen in the neighbourhood, were written by the *late John Hall, Esq. of Skelton-Castle.* The original is in Greek, and the translation was made for the use of the mere English reader.

‘ A CLEVELAND PROSPECT.

‘ I am the first, that with advent'rous hand
In Grecian colours, draw my native land,
Hold the fair landscape up to public view,
And point out beauties, known to none but you.
‘ See ! haughty Lofthouse there, with allum stor'd,
Lofthouse still weeping for her *halpless Lord* [*].
Kilton's deep vales, white rill, and sylvan gloom ;
Freebro's huge mount, immortal Arthur's tomb ;
And Huntly, scowling o'er the distant main,
With cloudy head involv'd in murky rain ;
Skelton beneath, the jocund muse's bow'r,
Smiles on the bard, an ancient humble tow'r ;
Where *feeling Tristram* [†] dwelt in days of yore,
Where joyful Panty [‡] makes the table roar.
Behold Upleatham [§] slop'd with graceful ease,
Hanging enraptur'd o'er the *winding Tees* :
Whole provinces extended at her feet,
And crowded ships, that seem an endless fleet :
No savage beauties here with awe surprize ;
Sweet, heart-felt charms, like Lady Charlotte's eyes.
‘ Mark Tockets, [‖]—nurse and cradle of the loves,
Where Venus keeps her children, and her doves.
Thro' yon tremendous arch, like heaven's vast bow,
See ! like Palmyra, Guisbrough great in woe ;
Those tow'ring rocks, green hills, and spacious plains,
Circled with woods, are Chaloner's domains,
A generous race, from Cambro-Griffin [¶] trac'd,
Fam'd for fair maids and matrons wise and chaste.
‘ Observe,—nor let those stately piles below,
Nor Turner's princely realms unnoticed go ;

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[*] ‘ The late Zachary Moore, Esq.’

[†] ‘ Sterne was a frequent visitor of Skelton-Castle.’

[‡] ‘ A familiar name, for a facetious friend, the late Rev. Robert Lassells, A. M. Vicar of Gilling, near Richmond.

[§] ‘ The seat of the Right Hon. Lord Dundas.’

[‖] ‘ Now called *the Plantation* ; the seat of General Hale.’

[¶] ‘ The Chaloners are paternally descended from Trahayrne the Great, son of Mayloc Krwme (alias Chaloner) one of the 15 Peers or Tribes of North-Wales, by marriage with Gwenllyan, daughter of Howell Koedmore, who was lineally descended from Griffith, son of Llyllyan ap Jerworth, Prince of Wales.’

most diligent research, been so unfortunate, as not to discover the particular place of his nativity; and consequently unable to recover any unpublished memorials of his family, of sufficient importance to claim the notice of the public. As a native of Cleveland, however, we have only to remark, on the authority of preceding biographers, that Dr. Brian Walton, after receiving the rudiments of grammar-learning, was sent to Magdalene College, Cambridge, in the station of a Sizer; from whence he removed to Peter-House, and took his master's degree there. We are led to conclude that he was born of honest and industrious parents, in the lower walks of society; it being recorded of him, that he entered the world meanly, teaching a school, and performing the office of a curate, in Suffolk; in which situation he removed to London, where he undertook the curacy of All-Hallows, in Bread-street, under the Rev. Mr. Stoke. He afterwards obtained the rectory of Sandon in Essex, and St. Martin, Ogar's, in London, where he was much esteemed by the orthodox, for his learning and religion.

'On the breaking out of the rebellion, in the reign of King Charles I., he was a faithful adherent to the royal cause, which occasioned him to be ejected out of his livings, and forced to fly to Oxford; where having leisure, he first laid the foundation of his design of publishing the Polyglott Bible, which, by the help of divers learned men, he lived to effect, in the year 1657. On the restoration of King Charles II. he presented that great work, in six volumes, to his Majesty, who thereupon promoted him to the bishoprick of Chester, which he did not however long enjoy; for he died November 29th, 1661 *.'

In this department of biography, also, concise accounts are given of several eminent characters; among which that of Captain Cook the celebrated circumnavigator, who was a native of Marton, in this district, justly claims particular notice.

In the descriptions of the several parishes, the reader will meet with a variety of information respecting their situation, extent, etymology, antient history, proprietors, present state, church-patrons, incumbents, curiosities, antiquities, pedigrees, aspect, soil, produce, general appearance, population, state of agriculture, &c. The work is illustrated by a map of Cleveland and several handsome engravings, and will be read with pleasure by those who are connected with that part of our island to which it relates: but its interest is chiefly of this local nature, and we hope therefore to be excused for not entering into greater detail in our report of it.

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* Mr. Graves does not advert to the memorable circumstance of the Polyglott being *originally* dedicated to *Oliver Cromwell.*

Art. VI. *Lectures on Scripture-Prophecy.* By William Bengo Collyer, D. D. 8vo. pp. 508. 12s. Boards. Williams and Co.

Among the evidences of revealed religion, Prophecy occupies a most conspicuous station; and in one respect it is superior to Miracles, because it operates to a wider extent, and bears its own testimony to distant ages. Much as this subject has been discussed, it is far from being exhausted; and, since many of the circumstances relative to it are of the most striking nature, it is very proper that the Christian advocate should display them for the benefit of the cause which he espouses. Can learning and eloquence be more honourably employed than in elucidating this portion of the sacred writings, and, by thus giving stability to the principles of our faith, securing the rising generation from those erroneous views which are too apt to poison the mind on the first expansion of its powers? We are always inclined to treat with respect such publications as are directly calculated to facilitate the study of the Scriptures, by judiciously obviating those difficulties which, from the very circumstances of the case, naturally present themselves; and by explaining, in an agreeable manner, those evidences of their truth which must be felt before their practical tenets will powerfully affect the heart.

Under this impression, the author of the present work comes before us with a weighty recommendation; and as in his former volume on Scripture-Facts*, so in the present on Scripture-Prophecy he has laboured to render essential service to Christianity, in an age which is much prone to scepticism and infidelity. If he has cast no new light on the subject of Prophecy in general, nor on any particular prediction contained in either the Old or the New Testament, he has treated the whole with much ingenuity; and no modern publication is better calculated to keep up the attention of young readers, or to accomplish the useful purposes intended by the reverend lecturer. It is perhaps impossible, at this distance of time, to answer all the objections which an ingenious unbeliever may be able to start in the course of so recondite a discussion: but it ought also to be observed that some strong points present themselves in favour of the reality of Scripture-Prophecy; and that sufficient weight of evidence remains to impress the serious inquirer with profound reverence for this department of Revelation. Prophetic enumerations imply the foreknowlege of the Deity, while their future accomplishment declares his providential superintendence: taken together, they present something truly impressive. Prophecy has been termed a standing miracle, a miracle of a permanent nature; and the fulfilment of which compensates for the absence of the strong but transient evidence, that was enjoyed by those who witnessed the commencement of the Jewish and the Christian dispensations.

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* See Rev. Vol. lix. N.S. p. 34.

Without undervaluing what has previously been written on this subject, we may be allowed to express ourselves well pleased at having it again brought forwards; and though we do not accord with Dr. C. in all his statements and opinions, we must allow that he has executed his task with a portion of ability which is creditable to himself as a divine, and which claims for his work a candid reception in the Christian world. We at first intended to have regularly followed him through the whole of his course: but, finding that this mode of procedure would carry us to an inconvenient length, we must restrict ourselves to a more abridged notice of his present Lectures than we originally intended.

We applaud Dr. Collyer's motive in wishing to engage the attention of young persons to the value of Revelation; and his good sense in aiming 'at a *selection* of those prophecies which are of the most importance relative to past events, and respecting the accomplishment of which no reasonable doubt can remain from the ample and convincing corroborations of subsequent historical testimonies.' He does not arrogate too much to himself when he claims the praise of having placed this point of scriptural evidence in an attractive shape, and of having endeavoured by his amplifications to throw some kind of novelty over the whole. These amplifications chiefly appear in the Introductions, and are managed with much popular effect.

Dr. C. informs us in the preliminary discourse, that it is his intention to take *a few prominent prophecies* as specimens illustrative of that branch of scriptural evidence which depends on prediction; being well assured that, 'if it can be decidedly proved that in a few *well established* instances futurity *has* been read and future events clearly *foretold*, the evidence is as satisfactory, as on any number of instances however extended.' In the following arrangement, the general design of the preacher and the subject of each lecture are expressed:

'1. The nature and kinds of prophecy. 2. Scripture-prophecy distinguished from heathen oracles. 3. Prophecy relating to the Arabs. 4. Prophecies of dying Jacob. 5. Character and prophecies of Balaam. 6. Prophecies of Balaam continued and concluded. 7. Prophecy of Moses relating to the former and present state of the Jews.

8. Prophecies relating to Babylon, Tyre, and the present state of Egypt. 9. Prophecies relating to the Messiah. 10. Prophecies relating to the Messiah continued. 11. Prophecies relating to the Messiah continued. 12. Prophecies relating to the Messiah concluded. 13. The prophecy of Jesus Christ relating to the destruction of Jerusalem. 14. On prophecies unfulfilled.'

It is unnecessary, in this place, to advert to the different senses in which the word *Prophecy* is employed in Scripture. Dr. C., as well by his stated purpose as by his definition, confines it to the *foretelling of future events;* a power which, if it can be proved to have existed, must have been communicated immediately from the Omniscient Deity. The flippancy and ignorance of the author of the "Age of Reason," on this subject, are exposed in the first lecture; and in the second the nature of Heathen oracles is examined: but we cannot agree with Dr. C. that any necessity exists for admitting the belief that in any instance they were supported by the instrumentality of demons, because in some of these oracles a knowlege apparently beyond the scope of human ability was displayed. The machinery at Delphos was well calculated to operate on the vulgar; while enlightened princes and statesmen knew how to avail themselves of its assistance. Those two instances which the preacher quotes from Rollin, of the sagacity and superhuman knowlege of the oracle, are only evidences of the contrivance and out-door-agency which the priests employed, and may be explained without supposing that the priestess or her tripod was in either instance aided by demons.

'There were (says Dr. C.) two memorable trials made of the veracity of oracles, and admitted by no less an historian than Rollin, whose depth of research, accuracy of statement, and fidelity of narration, stand unrivalled. Crœsus commanded his ambassador to ask the oracle, at a stated time determined between them, what the monarch was doing. The oracle of Delphos replied, that "he was causing a tortoise and a lamb to be dressed in a vessel of brass"—which was the fact. At Heliopolis a similar trial was made by the emperor Trajan. He sent a letter sealed up, to which he demanded an answer without its being opened. The oracle commanded a blank paper to be folded, sealed, and delivered to him; to the no small surprise of the emperor, who had written nothing in the letter which he had sent to the oracle. It is not necessary to suppose that in general demons have a knowlege of futurity: but in some instances it might be permitted as a punishment for the blindness and idolatry, the pride and superstition of the heathen world. The early Fathers have generally maintained this sentiment; and their opinion ought to have some weight, as they lived near the scene of action, and on the brink of the time in question. Nor is a partial impulse upon the minds of men by evil spirits more extraordinary or unreasonable, than the possession which in the time of our Lord prevailed over the bodies of men; and the doctrine of actual possession has never, in my mind, been overthrown.'

The admission of Rollin respecting oracles, that they sometimes displayed a knowlege beyond the compass of human ability, is not supported by the cases here quoted, and is very far from justifying the high praise which the lecturer has lavished on the French historian. The two kings concluded the whole establishment at Delphos and Heliopolis to be a system of trick and delusion: but it was no easy matter to detect the roguery, on account of the numerous spies and emissaries which were employed by the oracular *firm*. In the two experiments made by Crœsus and Trajan, the oracles gained credit by means of confidants. Crœsus, it may be supposed, acted under the advice of a *friend who had his lesson from Delphos*; and Trajan admitted a friend also to his secret, which was of course duly conveyed to the oracle. Why suppose the agency of demons in this business, when our modern fortune-tellers manage their trade, by the help of spies and agents, with equal dexterity, and often produce as much astonishment in those who consult them, as was ever excited by a Delphic reply? The testimony of the Fathers may be easily over-rated in this affair, especially by one who contends for the existence of real demoniacal possessions in the time of our Lord: but we are surprised that any divine who has perused Mr. Farmer's luminous work on the *Demoniacs* should cherish such an opinion.

A comparison of Scripture-Prophecy with Heathen-Oracles, which made an essential part of this preacher's plan, indisputably manifests the infinite superiority of the former over the latter. One was priestly contrivance, often in league with state-policy, intended to delude the vulgar, and to convert the easy credulity of an ignorant people into a very lucrative trade; the other was not made a source of gain, displays no delusive management, is uttered with the solemnity of truth, and in its awful warnings and denunciations manifests its procedure from the moral Governor of the world. Scripture-Prophecy is great in its character and in its objects: its purview surpasses that of all the oracles of antiquity: it stands alone, without parallel; and to attempt a comparison of it with the Heathen-Oracles is to afford it an opportunity of triumph. So far, Dr. C. has well prepared the way for the inquiry which he has undertaken.

It was requisite, also, in a preliminary examination of the prophecies in general, to shew that they were uttered before the occurrence of those events which they predict, and that they were written at the time in which they profess themselves to have been delivered. The lecturer has not perhaps been so elaborate in this part of the work, as those who are critically acquainted with the history of the Sacred Canon might expect: but it is to be recollected that his object is popular; and his question to those who suspect the antient prophets of imposition is very apposite: 'Why have there been no impostors, no successful pretensions to prophecy, since Malachi, among a people who for eight ages were celebrated for the splendor and accuracy of their predictions?'

The truth of Scripture-Prophecy being admitted, Dr. C. may be allowed to adduce it in confirmation of the doctrine of Providence; as a proof of the Connection of the Sacred Writings, and as presumptive evidence in favour of Miracles.

We shall take no other notice of the lecture on the prophecy relating to the Arabs, than merely to draw the attention of the reader to the very judicious manner in which an objection urged by Mr. Gibbon is combated. Dr. C. has made the historian himself furnish a solution of the very difficulty with which he would embarrass the advocates of Revelation.

The prophecies of the dying Jacob are dismissed, of necessity, with much brevity; for had each been made the subject of an ample comment, the work must have swelled to great bulk. Dr. C. has, however, examined at some length that part of the address to Judah, which is supposed in the verse containing the word *Shiloh* to refer to our Saviour: but though, in his notes, he quotes Dr. Geddes's Critical Remarks on this passage, he does not state the very important observation with which they were prefaced; viz. "that it is strange, if this passage related to Jesus Christ, that neither Christ himself nor any of his apostles should ever have thought of its application." This fact should lead us to question the accuracy of the common interpretations of the verse, which is thus rendered by Geddes: "A sceptered chief shall not fail to Judah, nor a leader of his own offspring, until there come peaceful prosperity, and to him the nations be obedient."—In this lecture, we have an instance of amplification not of the best sort:

> 'Gen. xlix. 20. "*Out of Ashur his bread shall be fat, and he shall yield royal dainties.*" This language is highly descriptive of the extreme fertility of that track of country which fell to the share of Ashur: an inheritance which not merely furnished the *necessaries*, but also the *luxuries* of human life., in its prolific produce.'

So far the observation is correct, and as much is said as the passage required: but the preacher chooses to add, too much in the Tabernacle mode of association,

> 'Such will be the portion of the Christian, when the good land which rises before him, shall be divided by the Saviour's hand among

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the sons of God! and who does not desire to share the "royal dainties" of that spiritual feast, of which our best ordinances are only types, and are bestowed as refreshments by the way?'

The character of Balaam is treated rather too roughly in the subsequent lectures. He is said to be 'an unprincipled soothsayer, who sold his conscience for the love of filthy lucre;' to be 'a man who blended the finest talents and the foulest heart that ever met;' whose 'lips moved only to promote deceit, and whose heart was wholly set on mischief.' How are these charges made good by the narrative? Balaam, it is true, conceived golden dreams in consequence of the message of Balak, inviting him to come and curse Israel: but was he seduced by any of the royal offers to act in opposition to the divine suggestion? Did he not bless Israel instead of cursing it, though his worldly views would have inclined him to the latter conduct; and does he not tell Balak that *his eyes are opened*, and that all the treasures of a king should not induce him to go beyond the word of the Lord his God? He might have entertained wickedness in his heart against Israel, as Saul did against the Church before his conversion: but, as he knew the will of God, he abandoned his hopes of preferment at the court of Balak to deliver the oracle of truth. He went on a bad errand: but "what he would do highly that would he holily," and he renounced the grandeur which would have awaited him on complying with the request of Balak, rather than act in opposition to the intimation of Heaven. This is not the conduct of an 'unprincipled' man. Indeed, Bishop Butler allows that Balaam had a deep sense of God and of religion; though in the circumstances to which we are adverting, he "cast about for ways to reconcile wickedness and duty:" but the Bishop does not do Balaam the justice to observe that duty triumphed.—If we pass from the character of Balaam to the prophecy which he delivered, we shall perceive it to be one of the most beautiful and striking of all those which are contained in the Old Testament; and to many of the remarks made on it by the Lecturer we subscribe, though we cannot agree with him that the passage, "and shall *smite* the corners of Moab and *destroy* all the children of Seth," alludes to the kingdom of Christ. We must also enter our protest against his position respecting the double sense or reference of Prophecy, at p. 234.

'In a candid and accurate examination of Scripture-Prophecy, it will be generally granted that many predictions wore two aspects; that these shorter ones especially had often a double reference; and that while they regarded approaching events, they also looked through the lengthened mists of futurity, to a period more remote, when the Lord himself should come to his temple,—an event of the very first magnitude, and a point in which prophecy and providence were alike absorbed. There are many passages, which might be produced, of this description: among others is that remarkable verse in Hosea, "I called my Son out of Egypt"—which indisputably, from its connection, refers to the deliverance of Israel from Egyptian bondage: yet the Evangelist Matthew applies it to the return of Jesus from Egypt, whither he had fled to avoid the wrath of Herod; and I am not among the number of those who entertain so partial views of his inspiration, as to imagine he might be mistaken.'

In the verse here quoted, to establish the position of a double aspect in prophecy, Dr. C. is rather unfortunate, since the passage in the O.T. (Hosea xi. 1.) is not a prophecy, but a reference to an historical fact which had occurred several ages before the prophet wrote, and is evidently cited in the N. T. not as a prediction but as a text suiting the case to which it is there applied. The misfortune of allowing double references and double fulfilments is that, if we grant such a privilege of interpretation, the conjectures of commentators will have no bounds. 'Every man, then,' (to use the preacher's words at p. 240.) 'will conjecture, if he can do nothing else, and thus hypothesis will be heaped on hypothesis, because the interpreter will aim at originality.'

We have already expressed our inability to advert, in a regular way, to the subjects of each lecture: but, as a specimen of Dr. C.'s mode of expounding and illustrating prophetic passages, we shall copy that part of the work which enlarges on the prediction concerning Egypt, Ezekiel xxix. 14, 15.

'In reading again the verses which I have selected, as a prediction directly leading to a definite and particular point respecting this people, we shall have to do not merely with their former, but also with their present situation; and this is therefore one of those prophecies which have the advantage of existing evidences. "*I will bring again the captivity of Egypt, and will cause them to return into the land of Pathros, into the land of their habitation, and they shall be there a base kingdom. It shall be the basest of the kingdoms, neither shall it exalt itself any more among the nations: for I will diminish them, that they shall no more rule over the nations.*"

'1. Review the different parts of the predictions contained in these verses, and in the connection in which they are found. The passage is short; but it very distinctly enumerates several interesting particulars, relative to Egypt. It is evident that her inhabitants were to be vanquished and dispersed; because the Lord declares, "I will *bring again* the *captivity* of Egypt, and will cause them to *return* into the land of Pathros, into the land of their habitation." Egypt was to be subdued by Nebuchadnezzar, and her riches were to be his recompense, for his hard service against Tyre, which passed, as we have already seen, unrewarded. "Therefore thus saith the Lord God, behold *I will give the land of Egypt unto Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon,* and he shall take her multitude, and take her spoil, and take her prey, and it shall be the wages for his army. I have given him the land of Egypt for his labour wherewith he served against it (i. e. Tyre) because they wrought for me, saith the Lord." Accordingly, the victorious arms of Nebuchadnezzar, passed through this country; and he transported many of its inhabitants, as he did those of other nations, whom he subdued, to Babylon: others, he settled in Pontus. A specific date was fixed for this dispersion; it was to last forty years. "And I will make the land of Egypt desolate in the midst of the countries that are desolate, and her cities among the cities that are laid waste, shall be desolate *forty* years; and I will scatter the Egyptians among the nations, and will disperse them through the countries. Yet thus saith the Lord God, at the *end of forty years* will I *gather* the Egyptians from the people whither they were scattered." I frankly confess, that I know of no history which establishes this fact: of none that determines exactly the period of this dispersion; or that can prove whether the date assumed in the prophecy was the precise time. In the absence of direct evidence, we commonly accept that which is presumptive; and when we cannot obtain proof, in the most important cases, it is usual to admit probability. Presumptive evidence is at hand; and probability is directly in favour of the prediction. For it was about forty years from this conquest by Nebuchadnezzar, that Cyrus subdued Babylon; in consequence of which event, not only the Jews, but other nations, recovered their liberties; and it is reasonable to conclude that Egypt shook the yoke from her shoulder at the same time, and that her dispersed sons then returned "into the land of their habitation."

'But although they were at that time to recover their liberty, they were never to reach their former greatness. "*They shall be there a base people*"—a phrase implying an alteration in their national character, as well as in their external circumstances:—a *diminished* people, and inconsiderable in the eyes of the nations—the very *refuse* of all people, monuments of degraded humanity—"It shall be the *basest* of the kingdoms, neither shall it *exalt* itself any more above the nations; for I will diminish them, that they shall no more rule over the nations." Such is the testimony of the prophet: now observe,

'2. It was very improbable, at the time when these prophecies were delivered, that Egypt should be reduced to the condition predicted.'— — —

'3. Yet it really became as abased as was foretold. Like all other similar events, this humiliation took place gradually—but it was not less therefore under divine superintendance. The means were natural: but the end was predetermined; the steady establishment of it argued superior agency; and the developement of it must have been a revelation from God.'—'It was to become, and for ever to continue, a *base* kingdom, of no account among the nations, but degraded in the eyes of them all. This fact we wish to establish, by observing,

'4. Such it continues to the present day. It is affecting to read the accounts, which modern travellers give, of its present prostration.

The ignorance, the sloth, the cowardice, the treachery, the wickedness of the inhabitants, fill us at once with astonishment, with disgust, and with horror. The learned and accurate Pococke says, "The natives of Egypt are now a slothful people, and delight in sitting still, hearing tales, and indeed always seem to have been more fit for the quiet life than for any active scenes. They are also malicious and envious to a great degree, which keeps them from uniting and setting up for themselves; and though they are very ignorant, yet they have a natural cunning and artifice as well as falsehood, and this makes them always suspicious of travellers. The love of money is so rooted in them, that nothing is to be done without bribery. They think the greatest villanies are expiated, when once they wash their hands and their feet. Their words pass for nothing" — but why should I pursue the features of this frightful portrait?—Another celebrated writer, (Thevenot,) in fewer words, has given them a character still more severe. "The people of Egypt are all, generally speaking, swarthy — exceedingly wicked, great rogues, cowardly, lazy, hypocrites, robbers, treacherous, and so very greedy of gain that they will kill a man, for a coin of no higher value than three halfpence." A more recent and renowned traveller, Mr. Bruce, bears a correspondent testimony. Crimes are common among them, which in this assembly, I dare not so much as to name: nor ought they ever to be named among Christians. Surely, if modern history be true, they are become — "a base kingdom" — "the *basest* of the kingdoms." —

' Yet Egypt seems to have had opportunity to have recovered something of her former position among the nations: at least to have risen from her abject humiliation, and to have acquired some advances towards a more dignified state of civilization. In a variety of respects, it appears a desirable acquisition to polished and enlightened nations: yet it is permitted to rest in its degraded connection with a barbarous and pusillanimous empire. The footsteps of science and of refinement have recently and repeatedly passed over it; yet they have left no impressions behind them. It is a remarkable fact, and worthy your attentive consideration, that the two greatest empires in the world have lately visited Egypt, without effecting a single change in the natural character of its inhabitants. They do not seem to have inspired the people, during their respective residence there, with a single thought above their present condition; and if they did, of which there was not the least appearance while they were with them, the sand did not more easily resign the impress of their feet to the wind that sweeps over it, than their visits were forgotten. France had twenty-five thousand men there, for, I think, eighteen months: not merely soldiers, but men of science. They effected nothing among the Egyptians The power of France melted before the forces of our country; and Great Britain held possession of Egypt for about the same space of time. At the close of the campaign, our troops also left Egypt as they found it. It does not appear possible for them to recover even an attitude of decent cultivation; and the characters of prophecy are indelibly inscribed upon it —"It shall be a base kingdom; it shall be the basest of kingdoms."

rer, in elucidating the prophecies of our Lord
e destruction of Jerusalem, makes great use, as
on this occasion, of the testimony of Josephus,
tracts are copied in the notes. In the concluding
rophecies Unfulfilled, we discover the good sense
in opposing visionary interpreters, by laying down
ental principles:

at our inquiries after prophecies unfulfilled ought to be
utious.

That the Scriptures furnish distinct general outlines
predicted, and yet to come, leaving them to be filled

That it is a duty to keep our eye fixed upon prophecy
lispensations of Providence, and to compare from time
e with the other; yet rather to apprehend that which
nfolded, than to pre-judge that which still is con-

r's work on Scripture-Prophecy, inasmuch as it is
invite young readers to the study of the Sacred
l to inculcate a conviction of the truth of them,
r acceptable to all the friends of Revelation: but
adopt not his creed will object to some of his
passages referring to the Messiah, and will not
trine of types: yet all will allow him the merit
animated and forcible preacher, and of having
a subject often discussed with much dullness,
le and impressive volume.

The Mythology and Rites of the British Druids, ascer-
lational Documents, and compared with the general
and Customs of Heathenism, as illustrated by the most
tiquaries of our Age; with an Appendix containing
ems and Extracts, with some Remarks on Ancient
s. By Edward Davies, Rector of Bishopston, in the
Glamorgan, and Author of "Celtic Researches."
pp. 660. 18s. Boards. Booth.

ELY for the cause of public instruction, a difference
n has at length arisen among the Welsh antiqua-
ing the contents and meaning of their antient
one time they were all in league to extol the
ished in the Myvyrian Archaiology, as documents
xth, and seventh centuries: they could discover in
and in the historic allusions, of these sacred songs,
of the age of Justinian; and they were preparing
e annals of Great Britain in conformity with the

rhymed

rhymed sagas of their bards. Wales, according to their assertions, had preserved during the dark ages the holy fire of knowlege and refinement; and had conferred on the barbarians of the middle zone of Europe, the sparks which were destined to rekindle civilization. From the Welsh, we were told, came chivalry, heraldy, the feudal system, rhyme, romance, and Gothic architecture; in short, whatever has given a peculiar character to our laws, to our manners, or to our taste, has been referred by these archaiologists to their own country.

To Mr. William Owen, the curious public are especially indebted for an excellent Welsh Dictionary, (examined in our xviith vol. N. S. p. 410.), which comprehends numberless citations from the bardic literature of the principality; for the entire and separate translation of the Heroic Elegies of Llywarq; (see our xiith volume, p. 18.;) and for the liberal aid given to Mr. Turner in the interpretation of the controverted poetry. If a writer who possesses the appropriate learning, — that is, a complete knowlege of the Welsh language, — would in like manner honestly translate and faithfully edit the remains of the other chief bards, it would become easier for non-Welshmen to reason critically on the subject of these singular compositions: but, if such translations are undertaken in an impure spirit, — that is, with a predisposition to find in the Welsh remains such opinions and principles as never occurred to the minds of the bards, — and if phrases are inflected, modified, or inverted, for the purpose of authorizing such imaginary inferences, — the mischief thus done to the cause of truth and sense will be long in healing. Mr. Williams is one of those who have been accused of virtual fabrication; of endeavouring to make the bardic documents speak the language of theism and Jacobinism; of discovering the unity of God and the equality of men to have been taught in the mysterious lessons of the Druids; and of vitiating his interpretations in order to prop the system of a prejudiced fancy. His accuser, however, the Rev. Edward Davies, is himself liable to an opposite suspicion. He is a disciple of Bryant; and he is a convert to the strange and marvellous antiquarian creed, taught in the *Antient Mythology*, which supposes Noah's ark to have been the original object of worship in every region of the globe.

What Hutchinson effected in the last age, Bryant has achieved in the present. By wearing a mask of Hebrew learning, he has known how to attach to his mystic hieromancy, both the unthinking and the designing erudition of the clerical order; and thus he has exerted, in the diffusion and protection of error and credulity, an industry which might have scattered knowlege and adorned truth. Bryant is the Dupuis of the Christian world; he leads a mythologic literature as comprehensive in its dance, with dreams as fantastical; and he has given to the pursuits of the clergy an extravagance almost inconceivable. One or another of his numerous disciples is unremittingly employed in hunting for vestiges of a *helio-arkite* worship, which certainly never existed.

The Bryantism of Mr. Davies exceeds that of most of his reverend coadjutors. Not contented with the moderate credulity of a Maurice in his History of Hindostan, or a Roberts in his History of the Cymry, he is not less a diluvian Quixote than the renowned Mr. Faber in his Mysteries of the Cabiri, and his Dissertation on the Prophecies. When a Welsh ode relates the bursting of a salmon-weir, (p. 285.) this becomes with Mr. D. an allusion to the *general deluge.* Dogs are priests, (p. 456.) pigs are pagans, (p. 470.) apple-trees are Druids, (p. 483.) bees are priestesses, (p. 485.) and a wine-glass is *the ark*, (p. 522.) according to the cabalism of this metamorphosing interpreter. In the maritime loves of Sir Trystan and Essylda, also, (p. 448. to p. 458.) he discovers obvious types of Noah and his voyage: but as well might he deduce from the mysteries of the Cabiri, the " *Rainy weather, Master Noah!*" of Punch in the puppet-show.

In two respects we prefer the Jacobinism of Mr. Williams to the Bryantism of Mr. Davies; it sails straiter away from the brink of mysticism, and its colouring is more visible to the vulgar eye. *Soi-disant* Antijacobins have so long accustomed us to the vigilance of alarm, that it is become a sort of literary instinct to suspect any one who speaks of mankind as naturally equal, of having studied his creed among the revolutionizers of France: but where are the alarmists against learned imposture and archaiological sophistry, against magical opinions taught with Hebrew letters, attempts at divination by interpreting scripture, or other forms of clerical hallucination? These things are venerated, not despised; laymen listen to them with complacence, instead of ridicule; and the most rational scepticism passes for an infringement on ecclesiastical loyalty. Hence, when we are told by Mr. Davies, (p. 139.) that Hu-Gadarn, or Corineus, is the patriarch Noah, we may stare, but we dare not contradict; and we might be suspected of explaining away the Deluge into a partial inundation, if we did not allow that Cornwall was the real landing-place of the depository of human existence.

Our faith is still more meritoriously exercised by another marvellous proposition of Mr. Davies. " I have been," says

Taliessin, (p. 260.) in words not very honourable to his mother's temper, "for the space of nine months in the belly of Ceridwen, the fury." After having wandered through a maze of seven mysterious pages, Mr. Davies draws the inference (p. 267.) that Ceridwen is *the ark!* Who but must feel devoutly conscious of the inadequacy of human *reason* to attain such revelations!

Yet, however ludicrous this style of interpretation may appear to the uninitiated reader, it is attended with one useful accompaniment: we mean, with English translations of various remains of the Welsh bards, not before published, nor elsewhere accessible; and any person who wishes to examine for himself the Welsh documents will find this volume essential to his collection, principally on account of the versions which it contains. Curious reliques abound in its pages.

The following Ode of Taliessin, on the bore of the Severn, will give some idea of the *natural* philosophy of the Bards:

'If ye are primitive Bards,
According to the discipline of qualified instructors,
Relate the great secrets
Of the world which we inhabit.—

'There is a formidable animal,
From the city of Satan,
Which has made an inroad
Between the deep and the shallows.
His mouth is as wide
As the mountain of Mynnau:
Neither death can vanquish him,
Nor hand, nor swords.
There is a load of nine hundred rocks
Between his two paws:
There is one eye in his head,
Vivid as the blue ice.

'Three fountains there are,
In his receptacles;
So thick about him,
And flowing through him,
Have been the moistening horns
Of *Deivr Donwy*, the giver of waters.
The names of the three fountains, *that spring*
From the middle of the deep.—

'One is the increase of salt water,
When it mounts aloft,
Over the fluctuating seas,
To replenish the streams.

'The second is that which, innocently,
Descends upon us,

When it rains without,
Through the boundless atmosphere.

'The third is that which springs
Through the veins of the mountains,
As a banquet from the flinty rock,
Furnished by the King of Kings.'

Of the *moral* philosophy of the Bards, an idea may be formed from the subsequent fragment:

'Besides the triplets which we have described, there are certain moral stanzas, of six or eight lines each, consisting of detached sentences, connected only by the final rhymes, and each stanza beginning with *Eiry Mynydd, Snow of the Mountain.* These seem to be nothing more than metrical arrangements of aphorisms, taken from ancient triplets. The two first are as follows:

"Snow of the mountain! troublesome is the world! No man can foretel the accidents to which wealth is exposed. Arrogance will not arrive at a state of security. Prosperity often comes after adversity. Nothing endures but for a season. To deceive the innocent is utterly disgraceful. No man will ever thrive by vice. On God alone let us place our dependence."

"Snow of the mountain! white is the horn of smoke. The thief is in love with darkness. Happy is the man who has done no evil. The froward is easily allured to do mischief. No good befals the lascivious person. An old grudge often ends in a massacre. A fault is most conspicuous in a prince. Give less heed to the ear, than to the eye."

'The following are amongst the aphorisms of the other stanzas.

"A noble descent is the most desolate of widows, unless it be wedded to some eminent virtue."

"In contending with direful events, great is the resource of human reason."

"The most painful of diseases is that of the heart."

"The leader of the populace is seldom long in office."

"For the ambitious, the limits of a kingdom are too narrow."

"The blessing of competency is not inferior to that of abundance."

"When the hour of extravagance is spent, that of indigence succeeds."

"Many are the friends of the golden tongue."

"Beware of treating any thing with contempt."

"Obstruct not the prospect of futurity, to provide for the present."

"Pride is unseemly in a ruler."

"The virgin's best robe is her modesty; but confidence is graceful in a man."

"Freely acknowledge the excellence of thy betters."

"A useful calling is more valuable than a treasure."

"Like a ship in the midst of the sea, without rope, or sail, or anchor, is the young man who despises advice."'

One general impression is made on us by these documents; namely, that their antiquity is greatly over-rated by all the commentators; and that the mass of allusions agrees with poetry of the twelfth rather than of the sixth century. Mr. Turner very carefully picked such specimens as were most free from the marks of modern origin; yet even in his collection, mention was found of wine-glasses, of candles, and of other objects unknown in Wales, and even in Brittany, so early as the reign of Justinian. Mr. Turner dwells much on the Gododin; here it is again translated, (p. 326. to 383.) and shewn to consist of a collection of independent songs, referable to incidents wholly distinct from those which were at first used to define its chronology. In all these poems, Christianity is already the implied religion of the country; and the allusions to any other superstitious remnants of creed or practice are so few, that we see little chance of adding by their means to the knowlege extant of " our old bards, the antient Druids."

Art. VIII. *Practical Observations on the Report of the Bullion-Committee.* By Charles Bosanquet, Esq. Second Edition, corrected, with a Supplement. 8vo. pp. 134. 4s. Richardson. 1811.

Art. IX. *Reply to Mr. Bosanquet's Practical Observations on the Report of the Bullion-Committee.* By David Ricardo. 8vo. pp. 141. 4s. Murray.

Although the bullion-question is considered by many of our countrymen as lying in a narrow compass, or, to speak colloquially, " in a nut-shell," the rapid succession of pamphlets which continue to issue from the press on this subject demonstrates either a very different opinion, or an extraordinary facility of expansion, on the part of the writers. From this assemblage we have now been induced to select, for a separate article, the productions of Mr. Bosanquet and Mr. Ricardo; because the one is the principal advocate who has hitherto appeared on the part of the Bank, and the other, from his former publication, may be considered as one of the primary movers of this important question. Both these authors are mercantile men; Mr. Ricardo's line of occupation connecting him directly with bullion and exchange business, and Mr. Bosanquet having been, for a number of years, a partner in one of our first West India houses. About three years have elapsed since a pamphlet from his pen, on the subject of our colonial trade, underwent revision at our hands *. In the present tract, without professing to controvert the principles of the Bullion-Committee in the abstract, he contends that they are not applicable to the actual state of our money-system. Until the appearance of his observations, the charge of inattention to the evidence of the witnesses, and to the documents in the Appendix, was the only one that was brought against the Committee: but Mr. Bosanquet goes farther, and accuses them, in some instances at least, of serious error in the representation which they have given of the papers in the Appendix. In the course of his animadversions, also, he takes frequent exceptions to the doctrines of Mr. Ricardo; who, in return, has lost no time in coming forwards as the vindicator of himself, and of the Committee. Each writer has followed nearly the same arrangement in the classification of his remarks; and in contrasting their respective opinions, as well as in communicating our own observations, we propose to observe the division of the subject which they have adopted.

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* See Monthly Review, Vol. 54. p. 92.

The first proposition of the Committee, which is combated by Mr. Bosanquet, regards Exchange. The Committee lay it down as a rule, that the "variations of the exchange with foreign countries can never, for any considerable time, exceed the expence of transporting and insuring the precious metals from one country to the other:" but to this rule Mr. Bosanquet produces several exceptions from Mr. Mushet's tables of the state of exchange; and he places the greater stress on them as proceeding from the work of an advocate for the doctrines of the Committee. These exceptions consist in examples of long continued premiums on exchange, to an amount greatly exceeding the cost of transporting the precious metals. It appears, however, that they are taken from the first edition of Mr. Mushet's tables, in which, from mistaking the par, a radical error of four per cent. occurred; an error which, as acknowleged in the second edition, pervades the whole of the calculations. To this admitted correction, Mr. Ricardo makes (p. 13.) a farther addition by a course of reasoning which it is unnecessary to explain here, but which we recommend to the consideration of those who aim at accuracy in exchange-calculation. A similar attention is due to his remarks (p. 22.) relative to gold in bars, to his observations (3[illegible].) on American coin, and to those (54.) on the currency of Hamburgh. Mr. Mushet's tables, after having undergone these amendments, no longer afford examples of the remarkable exceptions stated by Mr. Bosanquet; — and indeed, in the case of so plain a proposition as that which is advanced by the Commitee, we are justified in anticipating that the circumstances, which at first bear the appearance of exceptions, are much more likely to be misapprehensions of a question that is liable, from its intricacy, to a variety of mis-statements. In admitting, therefore, the rule laid down by the Committee, that while the currency of a country consists of the precious metals, or of paper convertible into them, the deviation from par in the exchange cannot long exceed the charges of their conveyance, it follows, as a kind of corollary, that in the case of a non-convertible paper-currency, the deviation from par may continue for an indefinite time *above* that limit. Such is evidently our case at present, whether we consent to give it the mortifying name of depreciation or not; and so far our opinion coincides with the Bullion-Report.

The second point at issue is the proposition of the Committee that, "in this country, where the charge on coining is insignificant, the value of gold in bullion cannot, in the sound state of our currency, long continue greater than the value of the same weight in the shape of coin." Mr. Bosanquet, though assenting to the truth of this statement in the abstract, contends against its application to the case of the Bank; which, previously to the suspension in 1797, that is, previously to the existence of any irregularity in our currency, often found it necessary to buy up gold at more than coinage-value: but this, says Mr. Ricardo, was foreign gold, and it is the policy of the Bank to purchase foreign gold in preference, though it be higher, that guineas may not be melted to be resold to them again in the shape of bullion. Foreign gold, it may be also said, is higher priced in the case of an unfavourable exchange, from the circumstance of its being legally exportable:— but, impressed as we are with the conviction that the present anomaly in our money-system has arisen chiefly from mercantile causes, we consider it as unnecessary to pursue any farther this branch of the inquiry; and the proposition of the Committee is so nearly self-evident, that it seems to be a superfluous task to qualify our assent to it by the modification of particular circumstances. In these two points, therefore, we agree with Mr. Ricardo;— but we are now about to enter on different ground.

We commence the exercise, in his case, of our reprehensive prerogative, with reference to his partiality for hypothesis. He endeavours to exemplify the effects of the present state of our paper-currency, by making a supposition that the circulating medium of the universe is wholly metallic; and that, in consequence of an extraordinary dispensation of Providence, half the amount of the currency in the rest of the world is annihilated, while our's remains as before. In such a case, currency among us would pass for only half the value which it would have abroad; or, which is the same thing, commodities among us would be twice as dear as among our neighbours: a state of affairs in which no laws could prevent the importation of commodities, and the exportation of currency. These circumstances, says Mr. Ricardo, would be proofs of an excess of currency, and will shew on a great scale that which exists among us at present in a comparatively small degree. It is merely for the sake of explanation that Mr. Ricardo introduces this and other singular hypotheses throughout his pamphlet. Now on this we would remark that the difficulty does not lie in comprehending but in proving his case. The opponents of the Bullion-Committee do not need to be told what the effects of an excess of currency would be, but to be convinced that such an excess actually exists; and the way to accomplish that object is to scrutinize the various circumstances of our political and commercial situation, diligently collecting facts, and scrupulously comparing their operation on each other, before we venture to pronounce our conclusions. If we proceed in this manner, we need have no fear of making ourselves understood, nor of being able to dispense, in our reasonings, with the aid of suppositions.

The third question discussed by these literary antagonists regards the state of our trade, and its influence on the rate of our exchanges. Mr. Bosanquet points out (p. 41.) a considerable error in the calculation of the Committee, and clearly shews that of late years the balance of payments between this country and the continent has been against us. Accustomed as we have been to lay great stress on this part of the subject, we looked with no slight impatience for Mr. Ricardo's observations on it: but here we can no longer recognize that judgment and accuracy of information which mark all that he says on the topic of bullion. He attempts no comparison between the present state of our trade, and that which preceded the irregularities in our money-system. He takes no notice of our annual loss of remittances, to the extent of four or five millions, by the stoppage of the American trade to the continent of Europe; nor of the heavy drains from us for corn in consequence of the deficient harvest of 1809; nor, finally, of the impossibility, under present circumstances, of our balancing these disadvantages by countervailing exports to the continent. These are the events which, operating on a *non-convertible paper-currency*, appear to us to have produced our present unfortunate condition. They commenced when that currency was at a depreciation of three per cent., and they have brought it down below fifteen. Had our circulating medium consisted of coin, and convertible paper, things would have taken a course highly unprosperous indeed, but materially different from that which we have *experienced.* The years

1808

1808 and 1809 would have been years of pecuniary difficulty, like 1795 and 1796; money would have been scarce at home, because a great part of it must unavoidably have gone abroad; distress would have been felt among our merchants, and, to an equal degree, perhaps, in our finances: but the value of the remainder of our currency being raised, and our imports from the continent being soon and peremptorily diminished by our inability to pay, a corrective, harsh indeed but natural, would have been in course of operation. The exchanges would have been greatly against us, to an amount, no doubt, exceeding the transport of bullion, but still considerably below the rate to which they are at present fallen. All this has received an altered direction from the non-exportable character of our currency: it removed the evil to a distance from its source; postponing till the close of the last year, and the beginning of the present, that season of mercantile reckoning which would otherwise have promptly followed the promulgation of our Orders in Council. By permitting us to go greater lengths before we became aware of our situation, it has swelled the amount of our lost and our endangered capital; while, on the other hand, it must be admitted that the exemption from cash-payments has preserved to the Bank a power of extending relief to the solvent trader, in a way somewhat similar to the government-issue of exchequer-bills in 1793. Our currency is depreciated, indeed, but more of it remains applicable to the alleviation of mercantile distress than we should otherwise have been able to appropriate. We are not disposed to argue whether, after the interference of government in our mercantile system had *actually taken place* in the end of 1807, the Bank-exemption operated as a good or as an evil; or rather, to avoid dispute, we will admit it to have been the former. Enough will yet remain to shew that, in a wide and comprehensive view, that exemption has been productive of great national misfortune. By placing the effect at a distance from its cause, it has kept the people of England and still keeps them in ignorance of the primary source of their disasters; and, which is still more important, by rendering the Bank and the monied interest in 1807 indifferent and passive under the measures of government, it allowed acts to pass which would never have been urged, had the Directors opposed them as they opposed continental subsidies in 1795. An opinion similar to this was expressed by us in an early stage of the present controversy [*]; and though none of the advocates of the Bank have completely followed up this course of reasoning, it is apparent from partial coincidences that our solution of the points at issue will obtain, in general, their assent. Objections to it are more likely to arise from the parties on the opposite side of the question. The Report of the Bullion-Committee contains, indeed, (p. 16.) an opinion similar in some respects to that which we have just submitted to our readers: but the language of that interesting document is brief and inexplicit throughout in regard to the operation of mercantile causes on the present state of our exchange; and, had the members of the Committee been impressed by this operation to the degree in which it has carried conviction to our minds, they never would have recommended to Parliament a resumption of cash-payments unqualified in every respect excepting as to time. Mr. Ricardo, and other writers on the same side, go farther than the Committee, in inattention to the influence of the course of trade on exchange, and appear to acknowlege no cause of depreciation of our currency but excess. Now, were this the only cause, we would ask how it happens that it did not operate sooner, the amount of bank-notes having been almost equally great for a period of *six years* previous to the end of 1808? and again, how it happened that in both the epochs of depreciation, 1799 and 1808, the fall was prior and not posterior to the increased issue?

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[*] See Reviews for October and November last.

We come now to the fourth question under discussion; which, to use Mr. Bosanquet's words, is 'whether the Bank possesses the power of increasing their issues beyond the absolute demand on the part of the public.' This is an inquiry of great interest, and we shall treat it accordingly at some length. The opponents of the Bank are of opinion that, since the exemption from cash-payments, the Bank have it in their power to go very undue lengths in their issues; and the Report of the Bullion-Committee proceeds on the belief that they possess that power, though admitting that its exercise has been tempered by great integrity and forbearance on the part of the Directors. Now Mr. Bosanquet contends on the other hand that they do not possess this prerogative, and that any excess of notes would speedily be thrown back on their hands. He begins by remarking that, until the disclosures which took place on the stoppage in 1797, the affairs of the Bank were veiled in mystery, and the actual amount of notes was not even conjectured, but was believed, like other unknown things, to be vastly greater than the reality. Mr. Bosanquet next calls in question the justice of the comparison made by Mr. Ricardo between a Bank and a mine; the latter of which, he says, causes necessarily a perpetual addition of the stock of circulating medium, while the former, by drawing back its issues, may leave the mass of currency unaugmented for a series of years.

It is only in the point of progressive increase that any analogy can hold; a circumstance which in the one is accidental and uncertain, in the other natural and inevitable. He then proceeds to enlarge on the economy in the use of bank-notes, produced by successive improvements in the practice of banking. So nicely is this matter now adjusted, and such is the system of prompt loan and repayment between different bankers, that their establishments may be compared to cisterns connected by pipes of communication, so speedily does the overplus of one find its way to the others.—Mr. Bosanquet's next observation regards the practice of discounts. Merchants are not in the habit of applying to the Bank of England for discounts, as long as they can conveniently obtain them from their own bankers; and indeed they often procure loans from their bankers on bills which are not of a nature to be discounted at the Bank. Now the joint effect of these two circumstances in the case of private bankers, namely, their having the first offer of bills, and their anxiety to keep no superfluous stock of notes, shews very clearly that any over-issue of bank-notes must soon lessen the application to the Bank for discount. When we consider that the weekly discounts at the Bank in general exceed a million, it must be apparent that the public holds a powerful check in its hands: accordingly, the tendency to a rapid rejection of over-issue is aptly exemplified in the case of the quarterly payments of dividends on the public stocks. These payments are made by issues of which a considerable part is in addition to and in surplus of the usual stock of bank-notes; and notwithstanding the magnitude of these additions, the power of reduction in the hands of the public is such as brings back the total of bank-paper to its accustomed limit within a few weeks. The augmentation of Bank-issues of late years having been vested not in loans to Government but in mercantile bills, it follows that the controuling power of the public has been increased in proportion.

Mr. Ricardo does not attempt on this head to enter the lists in argument with his antagonist, but enlarges on the existence of depreciation as an acknowleged fact, and contends that it can be owing to nothing but excess of bank-notes. — The Directors, when interrogated by the Committee on the subject of their rule for limiting their discounts, replied that it consisted in "confining them to good bills;" and this rule, says Mr. Bosanquet, is exactly the one laid down by Dr. Smith. On the inadequacy of this rule we have lately expressed our opinion at some length; we are now to add that Dr. Smith never contemplated this regulation as a sufficient check on a Bank, without the co-existence of an obligation to pay in cash; and next that it is not always in the power of the Bank, however experienced its Directors or servants may be, to distinguish fictitious from real bills.

Having said thus much on the circumstances connected with the circulation of the Bank of England, we shall now direct our attention to the country-banks. It is the opinion of the Bullion-Committee that an excess in Bank of England-notes tends to produce a correspondent excess in country-bank-notes. This idea is founded on the belief that an excess of Bank of England-notes, causing a rise in the price of commodities in London, relieves the sellers in the country-markets from the check of the markets in the metropolis; enabling the country-bankers to augment their issues till prices attain a correspondent rise in the country, and absorb, by this enhancement, the new addition to the mass of currency. In this part of the subject, Mr. Bosanquet seems not to be so successful as in others; nor does Mr. Ricardo, on the opposite side, bring any argument of weight in support of the statement of the Committee: it is left for us therefore to investigate its accuracy, and it may be well to begin by defining two things; first, how far depreciation exists at present, and next, what is meant by excess of paper. Agreeing in both points with Mr. Ricardo, we need only say that we know not of any depreciation beyond the difference between our paper and our bullion; and that by excess we understand 'the difference in the amount of circulation between the sum actually employed and that which would be employed were our paper at bullion-value.' (Ricardo's Reply, p. 100.) The opinion quoted above, as expressed in the Report, is taken from Mr. Thornton's Essay on paper-credit, (p. 217.) in a passage in which that gentleman contends that an over-issue by a country-banker would speedily be checked by his notes being sent in, and bills on London demanded in their stead. On the latter point, we entirely agree with Mr. Thornton, but the accuracy of the mutual check in the markets is a very different question. That idea proceeds on the assumption that the markets of the metropolis and of our country-towns are equally eligible for the general supply of goods, and that it is a matter of option with the buyers to purchase at either: but a slight attention to the question will shew that these markets supply commodities of very different kinds. London is the market for the produce of India and China to the whole empire, at whatever price; and it is also the natural channel for importing other foreign goods to a large proportion of Great Britain. Country-markets, on the other hand, supply the produce of agriculture or of local manufacture; affording, in many things, a check on each other, but in very few a check on the markets of the metropolis. If the Bank of England has had any power since 1797 to raise prices, it must have been in consequence of its monopoly of the paper-circulation of the London district. This monopoly may, in a course of years, have produced some rise, not in goods at country-markets, as the Committee imagine, but in the prices of London goods to the country-buyers; a circumstance which, though not without some influence on the amount of country-notes, would by no means bear on it in the direct manner contemplated in the Bullion-Report. We must, however, confess ourselves to be very sceptical in regard to the extensive power of our banks, whether in London or the country, to raise prices, or even to increase materially the amount of circulating medium; and we would recommend it to those who think otherwise, to consider that for every bank-note *some* person pays interest, and that the means of returning it on the issuer are always in his power. The way in which the Bank of England has co-operated, since 1797, in gradually augmenting the issues of country-banks, has been, not by raising prices, but by steady and uninterrupted accommodations to country-bankers in the discount of bills. The benefit of this exemption from cash-payment has been felt by the Bank less in a power to augment its issues, than in a relief from the necessity of suddenly curtailing them at times when, without that exemption, it would have been subject to heavy drains of cash; and it has put the Bank almost as much at ease during thirteen years of political convulsion, as if they had been years of peace. The shocks on our commerce, whether inflicted by the violence of the enemy or the more pernicious precipitation of our own government, have been felt by the Bank in as far only as they affected the solvency of the parties to the discounted bills; an effect which, from the shortness of term of these bills, and from the joint responsibility of several parties, is seldom serious. The accommodation afforded by the Bank to the applicants for discount has thus been not only extensive but constant; in short, an accommodation on which the holders of good bills might rely with confidence. We are thus agreed in opinion with the Bullion-Committee that the exemption from cash-payments has tended to the augmentation both of town and of country-notes: but we differ from them in tracing that effect to the medium of the markets. The question of the total of country-notes in circulation still remains involved in obscurity; and an equal ignorance prevails in regard to the ratio of their increase of late years. The Committee brought forwards statements calculated to convey an impression that their increase in 1809 had been very rapid; but Mr. Bosanquet has controverted these statements in very explicit terms, and Mr. Ricardo has not supported them.

The next question, to which we are led in this interesting investigation, is 'the cause of the rapid enhancement of commodities of late years.' Mr. Bosanquet is unwilling to acknowlege that over-issue of bank-notes has had any share in producing this unfortunate result; and he considers the addition of four millions to our Bank of England-circulation, since 1797, as sufficiently explained by the increase of our taxes, the whole of which are payable in notes of the Bank. Looking at the *gross* revenue, which is that which comes out of the pockets of the people, he finds that we now pay *fifty-three millions* annually more than we did in 1792. — In confirmation of the connection between the increase of taxation and of bank-notes, it may be remarked that the great call for notes takes place at the quarterly periods, when the treasury requires the collectors and their agents to make their payments into the Exchequer, previously to the issue of the public dividends*. At these times, discounts through private channels are very difficult of attainment; and it is common among bankers to request that application to them may be adjourned till after the dividends. It is thus to the amazing increase of taxation, and to the inadequacy of our crops to meet our consumption of corn, joined to the restraints on import by our corn-laws, that Mr. Bosanquet ascribes the great enhancement of commodities; points in which we most fully agree with him. He censures the Bullion-Committee for having, by loose expressions, given a sanction to the vulgar notion that paper-money is the principal cause of this, perhaps the greatest, of our national misfortunes; and Mr. Ricardo, with a precision which we recommend to other writers on his side of the question, confines the enhancing effect of paper to the actual difference between it and bullion. We could not, however, help being amused at Mr. Ricardo's confidence in our discretion, when he expresses a belief that people in this country have the self-denial to diminish their expences in proportion as their payment of taxes is augmented. We are not, like our neighbours the Dutch, economists by calculation; — exertion to increase income enters much more into our national character, than the passive virtue of retrenchment; — and in those cases in which augmentation of income is impracticable, we fear that an encroachment on the capital, (palliated by the hope of better times,) and even the contraction of debt, are the too frequent consequences of the pressure of taxation among us; — reduction of expence being seldom adopted, unless in cases of unavoidable necessity.

We have now arrived at the last division of the controversy between these adverse writers. Mr. Bosanquet added to the second edition of his pamphlet a supplement, containing some animadversions on Mr. Huskisson's publication,' and on the principles laid down in the Bullion-Report. He persists, in this supplement, in refusing to acknowlege the existence of depreciation, and goes the length of doubting whether bullion has been since 1797 the standard of our currency. In founding this doubt on the insignificance of our stock of bullion compared to our public revenue, he appears not to remember that bullion is the standard for the rest of the civilized world: neither does he seem to have been aware of the importance to the opponents of the Bank, of such an admission from one of its principal advocates; an admission which affords Mr. Ricardo no slight subject of triumph, it having been one of the chief arguments of the supporters of the Bullion-Committee that the effect of the Suspension-Act in 1797 was to change our standard from gold to paper. Mr. Bosanquet, however, is more successful in the subsequent part of his supplement. Having been repeatedly asked, by his friends, after the publication of his first edition, whether he intended to question the *principles* laid down by the Committee, he expresses a sense of his incompetency to figure in the field of abstract reasoning, and confines his opposition to the application of practical tests. Selecting several remarkable circumstances from the course of our exchanges during the last and the present war, he finds the explanation of them impracticable on the principles of the Committee, but very easy on his own; that is, he finds that the exchange has been governed, not by the greater or smaller quantity of our bank-notes, but by the state of our trade. How materially our exchanges are depressed by the misfortune of a deficient harvest, he has fully proved by a comparative table, (p. 131.) which we recommend to the attention of those who persist in forming their ideas of the balance of our trade from our Custom-house-books.

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* Richardson's Evidence, p. 149.

In closing our examination of these rival pamphlets, we acknowlege that they rank among the most interesting which the present controversy has produced: but we must, at the same time, consider both as liable to considerable objections,—objections originating not in the deficient capacity of either writer, but in the haste in which both tracts have evidently been put together. The authors are alike defaulters in regard to the primary requisites of arrangement and condensation; and they appear equally unconscious of the necessity of patient labour in digesting their thoughts and expressions, on a subject which is so dry in itself as to require all the aid that care in composition can bestow. Without this pains-taking course, he who writes on the principles of money and exchange will fail in obtaining even a perusal ation that was already before the public. Topographical antiquities are therefore but concisely treated; and the greater part is occupied with the pedigrees of the principal families, and accounts of the various proprietors who, at different periods, held the manors and estates in the county.

With respect to the sources from which Mr. Fosbrooke collected his documents, he observes:

'This work gives as large and valuable a collection of records and MSS. *as could be procured*, but some difficulties could not be overcome. Lord Edward Somerset, Member for the county, knowing that it would highly gratify many of his constituents, to have the fullest possible accounts of their families and estates, applied to the Lord Chancellor and Master of the Rolls, that I might have an unlimited range of the Rolls' Chapel Records, but from official difficulties it could not be obtained, although with regret on the parts of those distinguished persons. In recent periods there are, in consequence, defects here and there, and loose descents, for which I cannot justly be blamed; on the contrary, I hope I shall obtain credit for the extent with which I have surmounted this obstruction, by endless examination of pedigrees, and other means.'—

'Through the impossibility of obtaining access to the licences of alienation, the purchases are sometimes grounded upon evidences of such a nature as mostly to preclude, but not absolutely to bar mistake, and in these instances, as well as in some where the preceding histories are quoted, no authority is cited. Dodsworth, Dugdale, Vincent, Cole, Smythe, and various MSS. in the British Museum, have supplied many of the authorities quoted, but although this acknowledgement is due, the records themselves are cited for obvious reasons. Every pains has been taken to avoid error, but in a work of such extent, and frequently of such very intricate, and sometimes imperfect materials, some are inevitable. Records have not the minuteness of title-deeds.

'Of the noblemen and gentlemen who honoured me with support and information, the Earl of Berkeley's permission to use Mr. Smythe's MSS. in every important extent has been of essential service. Another great obligation is mentioned in vol. ii. p. 132. Mr. Caley, of the Augmentation Office, Mr. Harper, of that of the Duchy of Lancaster, and Mr. Archer, Deputy Kingsilver, contributed their aid in the most liberal and gentlemanly manner. Mr. Foxton, of the Lord Treasurer's Remembrancer's Office, permitted the search of a certain number of rolls at reduced fees: Mr. Nayler, York Herald, afforded access to some MSS. in the College of Arms: Mr. Chinn, of Hampton Park, furnished several pedigrees, (insertions due to the patrons of the book): and Mr Pearce, of Berkeley, contributed several drawings. But notwithstanding these services, the difficulties of obtaining due and complete information are so enormous, such information being purely in private hands, that let industry be what it may (and I can answer for my own) the pain of disappointment in the author ought to excite candour.'

In the Introduction, we have an account of the picturesque scenery of Gloucestershire, which is highly praised, as is generally the case when authors describe a district in which they have for any length of time resided. — In the general history of the county, Mr. F. delineates its antient state, and supplies much information in a small compass:

'Britain, in the later periods of the Roman residence, was divided into thirty-three *civitates*, of which thirty were in England and Wales, and two of this thirty in Gloucestershire — Cirencester and Gloucester. In each of these principal towns the offices belonging to each *civitas* were made residentiary: the duumviri, senates, decurions, curiæ, and ædiles. These civitates were arranged under five provinces, two of which were governed by consulares, and three by præsides. Above these provincial magistrates a vicarius extended his overruling authority, subordinate only to a prætorian prefect, with whom the Emperor preserved an immediate communication. The vicarius and the provincial magistrates, or the consulares and præsides, were foreigners. No native was suffered to enjoy in any case the provincial administration; nor could the provincial officers or their children marry with a native, or purchase territorial property, slaves, or houses. On the other hand, the municipal officers of the civitates seem to have been natives. It was a point carefully guarded by law, that the officers of one civitas should not interfere with any other: hence the edict, that no duumviri should with impunity extend the power of their fasces beyond the bounds of their own civitas. The decurions served for the civitas of their nativity; and it was ordered, if, to avoid the office, any withdrew to another civitas, that he should be made to serve in both. In Gaul, and therefore most probably in Britain, every civitas had a bishop, and every province had a superior bishop answerable to our metropolitans, though not distinguished with the title of archbishop. The people in general were in two divisions, the free and the servile. Such was the ancient state, at this period, of Gloucestershire. I shall now attempt its external aspect. British houses were built at some distance from each other; not in streets. These were generally on the banks of a river, for the convenience of water, or in the woods and forests, where abundance of forage might be found for the cattle. The most convenient of these places was chosen by the prince for his residence, and his followers and dependants made their habitations as near as they could, conveniently to that of their sovereign, and also erected stalls for their cattle within the same limits; a ditch and mound of earth, or rampart, surrounded the whole. The houses were wooden, circular (like windmills), with high tapering roofs, at the top or center of which was an aperture for admitting light and venting smoke. Such, I conceive, with mixtures of Roman refinements and buildings, was the appearance of the towns and villages.

'Upon the independence assumed by the Britons, in the time of Honorius and Constantius, the imperial magistrates (supposed to have been the vicarius, the consulares, and the præsides) were deposed: instead of the vicarius, a supreme chief, called a *penteyrn* or *umben*, was elected by the elders of the different states, to whom they did homage, by paying the *medeyrnged*, or tribute of the delegate prince. Independent Britain, accordingly, after the year 410, seems to have been divided into thirty independent republics, or *civitates*, each of which was governed by chief magistrates, or *duumviri*, a senate, subordinate officers, called *decurions*, an inferior senate, called *curia*, with other necessary officers. The ecclesiastical concerns were managed by a bishop in each, whose power sometimes extended into lay concerns. After this period, constant discords, as may be supposed, ensued, which produced a cluster of regal chiefs, and ended at the catastrophe of the Saxon invasion (indebted partly for its success to these discords) in the predominancy of one tyrant, Guorthigern.'

This portion of the work also contains an interesting account of the present clothing manufactory of the district; with particulars of the Rivers and Canals, Forests and Chaces, the *Honour* (or Government and Titles) of Gloucester, Provincial Proverbs, Dialect and Publications, MSS., &c. relative to the county.

With respect to the particular history of the city of Gloucester, the author professes that it consists only of augmentations and corrections of Archdeacon Furney's history; and it therefore comprehends such information as escaped the Archdeacon's notice, with the transactions which have taken place since his work was written.

Previously to the commencement of the parochial history, the author gives this summary of his intentions and plan:

' Before I proceed to the Parochial History, it is fit to say, that the utility of county-histories consists in giving to the public that body of legal evidence, respecting the property of the county, which is locked up in record. To this are added pedigrees, because these " regularly deduced contain memorials of past transactions and events: operate to the detection of frauds, forgeries, and impostures; clear up doubts and difficulties; establish marriages; support and defend legitimacy of blood; ascertain family alliances; prove and maintain affinity and consanguinity; vindicate and corroborate the titles of lands to their possessors; and are of essential use in settling claims and rights of inheritance, by furnishing effectual evidence*." Hence it is obvious, that record and pedigree are the grand fit constituent parts of every legitimate county-history: and, if they are dull, it should be remembered, that *utility* is the proper character of such books. In this work, the limitation (which infallibly prevents my rendering it so entertaining as it might otherwise be) requiring some management, I shall, to prevent repetition, premise a short discussion (selected from books of immense expence, repute, or scarcity) of the most common parochial antiquities, as tombs, barrows, camps, &c. After the manerial history, I shall add an Appendix, and end

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' * Sir Jos. Ayloffe's Pref. to Edmonson's Heraldry, i. 89.'

with *statistical tables*, which, under the column of memorable particulars, will identify objects of note.—Errors (which are unavoidable) will be corrected.'

From what is here intimated, as well as from the remark which we have already dropped, the reader will see that the work may be characterized as rather dry, on account of its details of pedigrees and manerial proprietors; yet the author has contrived occasionally to introduce such matter as must be interesting to the general reader; a few specimens of which we shall extract.

The achievements recorded in the following paragraph are so surprizing, considering the few advantages which the individual possessed, that it will be read with interest:

> 'William Hopkins was lately a journeyman miller at Dursley, and still lives there, though he has been obliged from a reduced state of health to change that employment for one less laborious. He is now near 40 years old, and has spent the whole of his time from his childhood in active industry. His attainments in learning are barely sufficient to enable him to read and write with common propriety, added to a knowledge of figures merely superficial. About five years since he became enamoured of music, and fancying himself capable of making a violin, he set about and soon finished one in a complete manner, without any assistance whatever; and when finished he quickly learned to play on it without the help of any living instructor. Shortly afterwards he began and finished a bass viol, without any assistance, which instrument he also soon learned to play on in the like manner. Elated with this success, he began to build a chamber-organ in his master's mill, and, wonderful to relate, after a long process, wholly unassisted, he brought it to perfection; and by a most curious invention he so contrived, that the great water-wheel of the mill, while performing its ordinary function, should also work the bellows of the organ, and at the same time turn a spit with meat on it, roasting before the kitchen fire: and this too at the identical time that he (self taught) was playing sacred music on this his organ! To crown the whole, he has recently built and completely finished an entire new organ in the Protestant Dissenter's meeting-house at Dursley, which is admired by the best judges for the fulness, purity, and harmony of its tones;—and which he began and finished without the least assistance from any person.'

In speaking of some paper-mills, Mr. F. thus concisely states the antiquities of paper-making:

> 'The art of making paper from rags is said to have been the invention of a Swiss at Basil, in 1417; but Mr. Warton, in his History of English Poetry, traces it to a much earlier source, I believe, the eleventh century, and there are specimens among the Tower records, which corroborate his opinion. We certainly have grants, conveyances, and other deeds and evidences in England, or at least have had, and especially among the very ancient collections of Rich. Gascoyne,

Esq. that able antiquary, who died about the time of the Restoration, written upon paper that was as old as the Conquest, and it is not improbable, but those quaternions of leaves stitched together, whereof King Alfred so long before made his little *hand-books*, were also of paper, rather than parchment or vellum. John Tate, who is presumed to have flourished about 1496, is said to have first made paper in England, or was at the expence of introducing the manufacture: for evidence is produced, that the English edition of Bartholomeus, printed by Wynkin de Worde, was the first book, for any thing we yet know to the contrary, that was printed upon paper made in this nation. John Spilman had a patent for making paper from Elizabeth.'

We extract the character of the celebrated Earl of Warwick, called the King-maker, because it is both just in itself and displays the author to advantage:

'Rich. Earl of Warwick, *as a soldier*, was truly great; but from the pride which, by not weighing probabilities, induces weakness, from having no immediate plans, and from obligation to act upon mere adventure, through balance of chances, he failed in periods, when he might have formed a new dynasty. Had he had designs, regularly matured, he must have acted otherwise than he did. As his conduct was always in subordination to some interest of others, pride rather than ambition was his leading passion. Confidence and attachment may result from bravery; but for individual supremacy, high talents must coincide, exhibited in union with consummate art and knowledge of the world. Warwick relied *too much* upon *the soldier;* and he had not sufficient selfishness to obtain his wishes.—Being occasionally more proud than great, he excited a passion which no wise man will, if he can avoid it, raise at any time—jealousy: and by not keeping sufficiently independent and reserved in success, the Kings, who knew his weakness, and gratified him, made a *tool* of him in adversity; in good fortune, endeavoured to suppress him to a certain extent; which, from the mingled operation of mortification and resentment, prompted him to measures which often terminated, through his power, vigour, and bravery, in success, but ultimately in his destruction. He was a mighty soldier, and enormously proud; but his general greatness of character is not commensurate.'

Of himself, the author speaks very concisely, under the head of his place of residence; and it was with pain that we read an account of his disappointment in life, which, we hope, will soon be removed.

With respect to the arrangement of this work, we have to state that it is divided into hundreds and parishes, like others of the same nature, with which plan no fault can be found: but with regard to the style we cannot speak so favourably, since it is occasionally abrupt, and the transitions from one subject to another are not always sufficiently marked. The pedigrees, instead of branching out in the form of trees, as in similar productions, are given like other matters of information, and consequently require considerable attention in order to be comprehended. Had judicious use been made of different types, and the pedigrees been divided into short paragraphs, they would have been much more intelligible; and here we cannot help observing that were the paragraphs on other subjects also shorter, the volumes would be perused with greater pleasure. They are illustrated by several engravings, some of which were etched by the author, and, though coarse, serve the purpose of illustration as well as if they had been executed in a more expensive manner.

In closing our remarks on the publication before us, we have only farther to add in general that, as a History of the County, which title it sometimes assumes, it is certainly defective: but that as a supplement to other histories, which it more particularly professes to be, it has very considerable merit. The author has evinced great industry in collecting information from sources not before consulted, and has thus been enabled to produce a work of real utility for reference for particular purposes; and which also may be very serviceable to any future writer who may undertake to give a complete history of Gloucestershire.

Art. XI. *An immediate and effectual Mode of raising the Rental of the Landed Property of England;* and rendering Great Britain independent of other Nations for a Supply of Bread Corn. With an Appendix, containing Hints to Commercial Capitalists, and to the Tenantry of Scotland. By a Scotch Farmer, now farming in Middlesex. 8vo. pp. 157. 4s. Longman and Co.

Of this pamphlet we may say something of the same kind that philologists have remarked of the English language, "that it has great (*some*) beauties and great defects." Its "beauties" (or merits) consist in a display, on the writer's part, of a thorough knowlege of the improved husbandry; while its "defects" are manifested in a most unfortunate manner of conveying that knowlege to the reader. From the signature to the dedication, it appears that the author is Mr. John Loudon, already known as the writer of a costly treatise on country-residences, (M. Rev. Vol. liv. p. 269.) and of a less ambitious production (Vol. liv. p. 230.) on the improvement of hot-houses. He confesses that it is his misfortune to write too often in a hurry: but he avoids making another acknowlegement, which is in our opinion equally necessary, that he is apt to write without invoking the salutary guidance of good temper and discretion. Instead of endeavouring to correct the errors of southern farmers by instruction, and to produce conviction in them by deliberate reasoning, Mr. Loudon loses all patience at their blunders, and pronounces that they are a hopeless and incurable race. Admitting even the whole of his animadversions to be well founded, the language of the monitor should have been less arrogant. Since the errors which so greatly offend Mr. Loudon are so essentially owing to a deficiency of leases, and to the baneful consequences of that want on the minds of the farmers, the innocence of the latter, in regard to the source of the evil, gives them a title to milder treatment in a work which professes to have the advancement of agriculture so much at heart; and they have a right to expect that the method, which an improving tenant would pursue, should be explained to them with more care and in greater detail than are discoverable in the labours of this peremptory preceptor. Mr. Loudon is angry with our farmers for being unacquainted with the proper husbandry, and yet writes a book on the subject without plainly shewing them the way to remove their ignorance. To those who will study and dissect this production, it will prove the source of valuable information: but to the cursory reader, it is more likely to appear in the light of a crude and presumptuous effusion. As reviewers should belong to the former class, we shall, without any farther notice of the author's defects of manner, endeavour to extract a few of his most useful suggestions.

The backward state of cultivation in the south, when compared with the flourishing agriculture of Northumberland, Berwickshire, and East Lothian, is not owing to natural obstacles. Both the soil and the climate are better in the south; rocks and swamps are less frequent, and the grass and the trees are more luxuriant. With regard to the objections of tythes and poor-rates, the former can generally, and the latter very frequently, be reduced to a fixed calculation before-hand, and allowance made for them in the rent. One fourth of the land of England is tithe-free, and another fourth is in the hands of lay-impropriators: yet the practice of agriculture is no farther advanced on these than on other lands. Poor-rates are ruinous only in manufacturing districts, which form a very small proportion of the extent of the kingdom. The radical grievance of the farmer in the south is the frequent want of sufficient leases; since, without the certainty of remuneration for improvement, he will embark in no expenditure for distant profit, however flattering the ultimate prospect may be. He is accustomed to say to himself, " the outlay is certain and immediate, the return precarious and remote;" and his mind, unexercised in any scheme beyond the compass of the ensuing year, adapts itself to its confined situation, and gradually loses all aptitude for extensive combination. This is particularly the case in land which is let, as so great a part of England is, from year to year: but it applies also more or less to land let on lives; to land let on a short term of years; or to leases purchased by payment of a fine. The tenant is discouraged from making the requisite outlay in the first instance, by the uncertainty of a life-time; in the second, by too short a tenure; and in the third, his capital is generally absorbed in the beginning.

Compulsion in regard to the course of husbandry should be confined to the last three years of the lease. It is then that the interest of the landlord and the tenant first become different, and that the tenant's hand must be tied by explicit restriction. During the preceding years, no distinction exists, because the method that is best for the land is best also for its occupant. — It has been said that leases are not indispensable preliminaries to the amelioration of the soil, since "permanent improvements can be made at the landlord's expence; and for others, a remuneration can be granted by appraising them when the tenant quits the farm:" but in regard to the first, it seldom happens that much good results to either party from improvements made at the landlord's expence; and the appraisement of improvements by the tenant, the chief part of which are concealed from ocular observation, is a matter of great difficulty. The only proper method is to let the tenant act altogether for himself, and reap the benefit or incur the loss of his own undertakings.

The diminution of population by the abolition of small farms is a complaint of long standing, but not well founded. Not only is food thus supplied in greater quantities for the consumption of towns, but it often happens that a greater number of individuals are maintained on the spot. A numerous household of unmarried labourers is productive of much trouble, and on large farms encouragement is consequently given to families to settle in cottages.

Mr. Loudon ascribes the backward state of English agriculture, in a great degree, to the too frequent employment of attornies as stewards. Experiment is the soul of improvement in husbandry; while precedent and analogy form the creed of a lawyer. A knowlege of deeds and accounts is but a subordinate part of the requisites of a land-manager; he ought also to be practically conversant with the business of a farmer. Misapplication of labour is also one of the drawbacks on English husbandry. How common is it to see, throughout the whole country, (with the exception of Suffolk, Norfolk, and a few other districts,) five horses ploughing in line, when fewer horses abreast can be yoked with more advantage; and by employing so many, except on very strong soils, a considerable proportion of strength is wasted: — the power of the first horse, in a horizontal line of draft, tending to draw down the power of the last. Threshing machines, although ascertained to be of great advantage, are not generally introduced in England; and even the winnower, or corn-fanner, which has long been universally adopted in the north, remains unknown in some districts of the south. The greatest of all deductions, however, from the productiveness of the soil of England consists in the extent of grass-lands which the landlords will not permit to be broken up for corn. If it be considered that these lands, now devoted exclusively to pasture, ought to be under an alternate series of grass and corn-crops, and if it be true (as it has been stated) that their superficial extent amounts to one half of all England, little doubt can be entertained that our deficiency of corn might be supplied without resorting to the difficult expedient of cultivating commons and wastes.

The introduction of the improved husbandry into Scotland took place half a century ago, and originated in a great measure from the circumstance of the Berwickshire farmers sending their sons for instruction to Norfolk. A similar advantage might now be reaped by sending young men from the south of England to Northumberland, or other improved districts. Books on agriculture can be useful to those only who possess a practical knowlege of the art; and it is not advisable to trust altogether to bailiffs even from the best counties, because their practice is seldom so economical as that of the tenant who is interested in watching the details of expenditure. It is the want of this perpetual vigilance in regard to expenditure, that so frequently extinguishes the profits of gentlemen-farmers. — Formerly it was a practice in the north to let land by advertising for sealed offers, but the frequent failures of strange tenants, and the consequent injury to the land, have led to the adoption of the more reputable mode of fixing the rent by valuation. — Mr. Loudon justly remarks that the progress of the northern part of the kingdom in agriculture is to be ascribed, in a great degree, to this pursuit having formed the principal object for the activity and intelligence of the country; while, in the south, commerce and manufactures absorbed the general attention. Labourers' wages are greatly higher in the north: but, as the diet and drink of the English labourer are more expensive, the final cost is nearly equal.

Mr. L. introduces a brief notice of the state of cultivation in the different counties of England; in all of which, with the exception of Northumberland, Suffolk, Norfolk, Staffordshire, and part of Cheshire, he is of opinion that the rents might speedily be doubled. He gives also (p. 46.) a sketch of the conditions of a lease as commonly drawn in the north; for which he has our best thanks: but we can scarcely be as grateful in regard to his Latin quotations. If he can furnish nothing less trite than his "*Oh mores hominum*," (p. 38.) and "*Omne tulit punctum*," (p. 144.) he will do well to remember the *Greek* proverb, and "hold his tongue."

Art. XII. *The Mercurial Disease.* An Inquiry into the history and nature of the Disease produced in the human constitution by the Use of Mercury, with Observations on its connections with the Lues Venerea. By Andrew Mathias, Surgeon Extraordinary to the Queen, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 257. 7s. Boards. Becket and Porter. 1810.

The object of this inquiry is highly interesting, as the developement of a series of curious physiological facts, and still more as likely to have a material influence on medical practice. Mr. Mathias attempts to prove that, when mercury has been received into the constitution in too large a quantity, or under unfavourable circumstances, it has a tendency to create a specific and formidable disease; and that, while this process is going forwards, all the salutary effects of the mercury are suspended, or counteracted. It would appear also that this is by no means a rare occurrence, but one which is every day taking place under our inspection, although we have unfortunately ascribed the effects which are produced to a different and frequently to an opposite cause. — In the introduction to his discussion the author gives a brief analysis of the plan which he proposes to pursue, and of the positions which it is his object to establish. After having shewn that the disease exists, and that it is caused by mercury alone, he proceeds to state that it possesses an uniform and specific character, and that it is distinct from other diseases; concluding from this circumstance that it must have an important effect on our method of treating syphilis.

According to this plan, the first section is intitled a 'general history of the mercurial disease,' and consists of an ample and perspicuous account of its symptoms, both local and general, of the manner in which it makes its first attack, and of the course which it usually maintains. It might naturally be expected that a disease, so formidable as that which is produced by mercury appears to be, could not altogether have escaped the notice of former practitioners, though they might have been mistaken as to its cause, and Mr. Mathias shews this to have been the case. Mr. Hunter's accuracy of observation could not overlook such remarkable effects as those which are detailed in this work; and he accordingly stated many instances in which they took place to a great extent, and in which he was fully aware of a deviation from the usual course of things, with respect to the operation of mercury on the system. He even went so far as to suppose that the mercury itself was concerned in the production of the symptoms: but it seems that he went no farther, and did not arrive at the result which the present author attempts to substantiate, that the mercury alone, without any united operation of the syphilitic poison, generates a separate and uniform disease. Observations similar to those of Mr. Hunter were made by Dr. Swediaur, and by Mr. Howard: but they in like manner stopped short, without reaching the important conclusion which is so explicitly brought into view by Mr. Mathias.

The great point which it behoved the author to establish, and which must serve as the basis of all his theoretical and of a considerable part of his practical reasoning, is the fact that the specific disease, which is described in this work, can be produced by mercury independently of the conjunction or interposition of any other morbid affection. It happens, however, that cases proper for the establishment of this position do not frequently occur, because it is seldom that mercury is taken in a sufficient quantity to excite its appropriate symptoms, without some other disease being present, which might be supposed to have a share in their production. Yet instances of the simple effects of mercury are occasionally found, and two are here detailed which appear to be fair examples of this kind; in which a train of symptoms ensued, both local and general, corresponding with the affection specifically styled by the author, *the mercurial disease*. At the same time that we give this opinion, we think that it would be extremely desirable to place so very essential a point beyond the reach of the slightest uncertainty; and we hope, now that the subject is explicitly brought into discussion, that more occurrences of this kind will be noticed. It is a singularly embarrassing circumstance, and one which has principally tended to keep the matter so long in obscurity, that the mercurial disease, in all its leading symptoms, very strongly resembles syphilis; and since it is in a great majority of cases produced by the mercurial course which is adopted to remove syphilis, those appearances, which should have been attributed to an excessive quantity of this medicine, have been ascribed to a deficiency of it. It is farther remarkable, and in a practical point of view extremely material, that, as soon as mercury begins to excite in the constitution its particular morbid effects, its antivenereal powers cease, and it has no influence over this complaint,

t, until the constitution becomes entirely relieved from its
urial effects. Proceeding on this hypothesis, every prac-
ıer must immediately come to the conclusion, that a very
proportion of all those inveterate and deplorable cases,
h were supposed to be syphilitic, but which mercury was
d insufficient to remove, were really cases of 'the mer-
l disease,' succeeding to an excessive or improper use of
ury; in which the venereal virus was either extinguished,
least in a dormant state; and which were to be relieved,
y continuing the use of mercury, and even pushing it to
ater extent, but by entirely laying it aside. When we
t on these facts, for facts they certainly appear to us to
ve shudder at the imminent danger in which the lives of
rge a proportion of our fellow creatures have been placed;
we can scarcely feel sufficiently grateful to the sagacity
ssiduity which have developed and established such im-
nt truths.

fter having taken a general view of the disease, Mr.
ıias describes more minutely the local symptoms which it
its, the bubo, the chancre, the affection of the throat, and
e bones. We shall in general observe, on this part of the
, that the author expresses himself with clearness and
sion; and so far as internal evidence can enable us to
an opinion, we should regard his account of the different
s which the disease assumes, as a faithful representation
hat has actually passed under his observation. We before
rked that the mercurial disease attacks all the parts which
he seat of syphilis; and it attacks them nearly in the
order, and assumes very nearly the same external ap-
ınces. The only mode, by which they can be distin-
ıed, is by minutely attending to the previous history of the
se, to the effect of remedies and particularly of mercury
, to the probable exciting causes, and to the progress
h it is making. By the assistance of all these circumstances,
rable judgment of the case may in general be formed: but
many instances must occur in which the only deciding
will be to observe whether mercury retards or promotes
ure, and whether, when mercury has been given without
, the symptoms are not alleviated by intermitting it.
s in the discrimination between the mercurial and the
real affections, we are frequently obliged to assist our
ment by inquiring into the causes which operate in the
uction of the former, it is of great importance to make
lves intimately acquainted with these causes. Mr. Ma-
accordingly devotes a section to this subject, and enume-
at some length those which he conceives to act the most

remarks on this volume, we must express
d improvement which we have derived from
ıd we have no hesitation in saying that it
ıportant change in practice, and must tend
of some of the most unfortunate states of
human body is subject. As an addition to
the performance, we must not omit to
r with which the author speaks of those
in opinion; a conduct which displays an
ınd a cultivated understanding.

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tific and popular View of the Fever of Walcheren,
, as they appeared in the British Troops
ie Expedition; with an Account of the morbid
ody, and the Efficacy of drastic Purges and
ıtment of the Disease. By J. B. Davis, M.D.
ıns appointed by the Medical Board to attend
rned to England. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Tipper.

perused any work which has excited in us
e of the *oppressio virium* than the publica-
s extremely prolix and tedious: yet, the
tant, we determined to read it through;
accomplished the task, we shall proceed
some account of what we encountered in
it, convinced as we are that very few of
ins of following our example. Dr. Davis,
lly informs us, saw the disease only as it
y, he being one of the temporary physicians
to superintend the sick after their removal
'he number of cases which he had under
ly considerable, and we are disposed to
lled his office with assiduity: but it is
ıns of ascertaining the real nature of the
mited; and that even a greater share of
sessed would enable a person who saw
of the complaint, to form but a very
s genuine character. From this scanty
ıor, by an almost unexampled effort of
er, has contrived to produce a long treatise
printed pages; and it must be confessed
hout deviating much into any extraneous

ıts us with an introduction, in which much
he peculiar situation of Walcheren, the

well known to every one before the publication
essay.

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With respect to the general character of this treatise, little remains to be said in addition to what may be inferred from our remarks on its individual parts. The style is heavy, and interspersed with affected expressions; and the author is very lavish of his quotations, which are often brought in without any other assignable object than that of filling up a greater quantity of paper. Still the volume does contain some facts, and therefore is not to be totally disregarded.

ART. XIV. *A View of the State of the Nation*, and of the Measures of the five last Years; suggested by Earl Grey's Speech in the House of Lords, 13th June 1810. By Thomas Peregrine Courtenay, Esq. 8vo. pp. 180. 5s. 6d. Stockdale jun.

BEFORE we proceed to offer our sentiments on this bulky pamphlet, it may be well to apprize our readers that its author is a person of very different views from those of the parliamentary veteran who bears the same name; and that the design of his publication is to institute a comparison between the ministry of 1806 and their successors, the advantage of which appears to the writer to lie altogether on the side of the latter. The speech of Lord Grey, which is here the subject of comment, is that on which Mr. Roscoe has already published "Brief Observations*," tending to shew that Lord Grey was disposed to over-rate the dangers of peace. Although well known to be on the whole pacifically inclined, the noble Earl had recommended that our first object should be not a termination of hostilities but a restricted warfare, and a limitation of our exertions to naval operations. Mr. Roscoe, on the other hand, contended that a speedy peace would afford the best means of augmenting our resources, and of stopping the progressive aggrandizement of France. Mr. Courtenay informs us in a note (p. 33.) that he, contrary to the opinion of those whom he most respects, is the advocate of peace, but he declines to enter on the subject in the present publication. He begins by presenting an analysis of Lord Grey's speech, and, adding (p. 13.) some sarcastic remarks on the contradictory nature of the materials of which the present Opposition is composed, he enters at some length into the state of our taxes. These, he contends, are in no danger of falling off, notwithstanding the vast accumulation of our imposts of various kinds, and the gloomy predictions of some of our official men. He discovers few symptoms of a knowlege of the principles of taxation, or of the effects of public burdens on national industry: but he is generally well informed of facts, and temperate in the conclusions which he draws from them. He must not, however, expect us to agree with him in the whimsical notion (p. 22.) that mercantile failures are a 'symptom of exuberant prosperity.'

After having discussed the subject of finance, Mr. Courtenay proceeds to treat of military operations, and to censure at great length the course of foreign policy pursued by Lord re shall expect with some degree of interest ation which he has promised in his prefatory [illegible]

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* See our Number for September last, p. 103.

ILY CATALOGUE,

r FEBRUARY, 1811.

HISTORY.

n *Ancient History*, exhibiting a summary View of ography, Manners, and Customs of the Assy- ı, Median, Persian, Egyptian, Israelitish, and . By Anne Wilson. 12mo. pp. 331. 5s. ıan and Co.

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, moreover, are seldom sufficiently learned in the undertake with propriety the department of an- ithout some Hebrew, much Greek, and more possible to give a trust-worthy outline of primæval l records may be degraded into a monkish chro- r purified into inutility, when consigned to the norous superstition.

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RELIGIOUS.

of Truth: or the United Church of England
o be " built upon the Prophets and Apostles,
being the Chief Corner Stone," and therefore
ful Attachment of all those who have been ad-
into her Communion. By the Rev. Luke
vo. pp. 70. Cadell and Davies.
f Common Prayer be supereminent as a form
s a system of doctrine it is open to objection,
guage is accurately compared with that of the
ny of the most learned of the Clergy have ad-
ed this circumstance; confessing that it is not
n the leaven of Popery and reduced to the exact
his Apostles. Dr. Booker, however, makes
nd. He does not contend for the Liturgy as
n, but he tells us that ' it is as faultless as any
roduced by fallible men; being accordant *in*
Writ.' What are we to say to a writer who
ssertion? Can he find, in the Scriptures, any
e Trinity which will accord with that of the
an he find it asserted in the Scriptures, that
eds from the Father *and the Son?* or that
d are "*verily and indeed taken*" in the Sacra-
t-mentioned phrase copied from the Romish
o have been retained when the doctrine of tran-
ndoned? We have no desire by these questions
but merely to convince Dr. B. that he is too
tions with regard to the doctrinal perfection of
nplains of the growth of Methodists: but he
vare how much the tenets of the Articles assist
es he not know that their "strange doctrines"
his own system as they ought to be made?
his being placed over his flock ' by the *Holy*
ll into the very fanaticism which he so justly
odists? — and when he represents himself as
o the sacred office by persons ' to whom *power*

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somewhat qualified at p. 48., where the author
hat ' most of the words and phrases of the
of the Holy Scriptures, and the rest are the
ages: so that whoever takes exception at these
language of the Holy Ghost, and with the Church
ce.' Did Dr. B. entirely forget Ecclesiastical
unt on the ignorance of his readers, in making
k? If he turns to his books, he will find that
was not introduced, and that the dispute about
ccur, when the Church was ' in her greatest in-
the words "*verily and indeed taken*" cannot be
guage of the Holy Ghost. We did not expect
ion called *The Temple of Truth,* such gross mis-

and

powerfully in this way. The causes which he states are partly constitutional, and partly local or accidental. A peculiarity of habit sometimes exists in which mercury acts as a poison, and almost immediately tends to the production of the mercurial disease, when given even in the smallest quantity. A plethoric state of the body, great nervous irritability, and the presence of scrofula or scurvy, seem also to favour this affection: but it is more frequently to the accidental causes that it owes its origin; and of these the most material are improper treatment during a mercurial course, the topical application of stimulating mercurial preparations to venereal sores, and the employment of the saline preparations of mercury instead of the simple pill or ointment.

The outline which we have given of the author's doctrine and opinions will render it sufficiently apparent, that a new light has here been thrown on the management of mercury and the treatment of syphilitic complaints; that in some instances, in which we were before involved in difficulties, we have now a clear principle to direct us; and that a considerable change in our practice must be the result. A section is allotted by Mr. Mathias to this point; the great object of which is to shew the importance of guarding against the exciting causes of the mercurial disease, and to intermit all mercurial applications as soon as it makes its appearance. We have afterward some very judicious remarks on the operation of other supposed antivenereal medicines, mezereon, sarsaparilla, guaiacum, &c. The general conclusion is that they have no power over the syphilitic virus, but that they may be of use in removing the *mercurial disease*; and by an attentive examination of the cases in which they have been supposed to be serviceable, Mr. Mathias's opinion is rendered extremely plausible. It is highly probable that, in these instances, the syphilitic affection was subdued, and the mercurial disease alone remained. In this part of his work, the author has displayed a considerable share of acuteness and discrimination.

The last section treats on the cure of the mercurial disease; which consists fundamentally in refraining from the use of mercury as soon as the least indication of the existence of the disease takes place, and, which is one of the first circumstances to be noticed, as soon as the mercury ceases to produce any farther benefit with respect to the syphilitic symptoms. If the system be plethoric, the antiphlogistic regimen is to be pursued in all the different ways; if it be in an irritable or reduced state, we are to give a proper quantity of nutrition, and cautiously to administer tonics. Excepting occasionally, when topical applications are necessary, the above treatment appears to be all that is essential.

In concluding our remarks on this volume, we must express the great pleasure and improvement which we have derived from the perusal of it; and we have no hesitation in saying that it must produce an important change in practice, and must tend to facilitate the cure of some of the most unfortunate states of disease to which the human body is subject. As an addition to the other merits of the performance, we must not omit to mention the candour with which the author speaks of those who differ from him in opinion; a conduct which displays an amiable disposition and a cultivated understanding.

Art. XIII. *A scientific and popular View of the Fever of Walcheren, and its Consequences,* as they appeared in the British Troops returned from the late Expedition; with an Account of the morbid Anatomy of the Body, and the Efficacy of drastic Purges and Mercury in the Treatment of the Disease. By J. B. Davis, M.D. One of the Physicians appointed by the Medical Board to attend the sick Troops returned to England. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Tipper. 1810.

We have seldom perused any work which has excited in us a greater degree of the *oppressiō virium* than the publication before us. It is extremely prolix and tedious: yet, the subject being important, we determined to read it through; and having actually accomplished the task, we shall proceed to give our readers some account of what we encountered in our progress through it, convinced as we are that very few of them will take the pains of following our example. Dr. Davis, as he himself candidly informs us, saw the disease only as it existed in this country, he being one of the temporary physicians who were appointed to superintend the sick after their removal from Walcheren. The number of cases which he had under his care was probably considerable, and we are disposed to believe that he fulfilled his office with assiduity: but it is obvious that his means of ascertaining the real nature of the disease were very limited; and that even a greater share of sagacity than he possessed would enable a person who saw only the termination of the complaint, to form but a very imperfect idea of its genuine character. From this scanty foundation, the author, by an almost unexampled effort of perseverance, however, has contrived to produce a long treatise of 225 very closely printed pages; and it must be confessed that this is done without deviating much into any extraneous matter.

Dr. D. first presents us with an introduction, in which much is said concerning the peculiar situation of Walcheren, the nature of the surrounding country, the manner in which the climate may be supposed to operate, and the opinion of Pringle and others on the subject. We have then some general remarks on the history and progress of the disease as it appeared there among the troops, and an account of the accommodations which the patients enjoyed at Ipswich, where Dr. Davis was stationed: in this way, 25 pages are filled. We next enter on a section intitled 'primary and illustrative observations'; chiefly consisting of hypothetical opinions respecting the nature of intermittent fever. Here we learn that the latter stages were very irregular in their symptoms; that agues are cured by 'stopping the chain of morbid events,' but that many preliminary circumstances must be considered before we can apply that degree of shock which is sufficient to break the chain; that, when one part of the body is much disordered, other parts sooner or later feel the effect; that the constitution of the individual influences the symptoms of the disease; with many other common-places equally trite and uninteresting. We should doubt whether a single new idea, or the least addition to our previous stock of knowlege, can be gained by the perusal of this chapter.

We now proceed in due form and order to the definition and diagnosis; whence we learn nothing but that the Walcheren fever is precisely the Autumnal intermittent which prevails in all marshy situations, and which, as attached to this particular spot, had been previously described by Sir John Pringle. It was therefore not only unnecessary but even improper, to give this disease the name of *Walcheren fever*, as if it were a new disease, when in fact it exhibited nothing peculiar to itself, which from its having a new title we should naturally conclude was the case. — The next chapter, containing an 'analysis of peculiar phenomena, and concomitant symptoms,' is not less wearisome and uninteresting than its predecessors. Proceeding to the pathology of the disease, we find, as far as we can follow the author, that he thinks that the disease originates in debility, a most convenient and unmeaning term; that the circulation is thus impeded; and that the blood consequently accumulates in some of the abdominal viscera. The fifth section, on the predisposing, concurring, and exciting causes, gives the author full scope for his talent at amplification; and he occupies several pages in proving that different individuals possess different constitutions, which are influenced in different ways by external causes; that particular circumstances must concur to favour the action of these causes; and that, in the case of intermittent fever, the exciting cause is marsh-effluvia. All this is true, but it was perfectly well known to every one before the publication of Dr. Davis's essay.

At length we arrive at that part of the work which gives an account of the treatment of the disease. We have no reason to question the author's accuracy of statement; and when he relates the result of what fell under his own observation, we may consider him as at least original, if not interesting. It is scarcely necessary to observe that the practice of Dr. Davis was confined, not to the fever in its genuine form as it originates from marsh-effluvia, but to a disease compounded of the effects of these effluvia and of other noxious causes, both bodily and mental, which were all acting on the constitutions of our unfortunate countrymen. Hence it arises that scarcely two of the cases are similar; and that any inference drawn from them to other examples of disease must be made with the greatest caution. Some of the cases which fell under the author's care appear to us to have been almost pure typhus; while others were little more than simple dysentery, and with nearly the ordinary symptoms of these diseases. Before we can derive much practical information from the relations of Dr. Davis, we should know the previous history and treatment of his patients; circumstances to which he seldom has referred, and which it was perhaps impossible to ascertain. Still, however, the information of this chapter is valuable, though not to be attained without some difficulty, and not to be received without some caution.

A striking feature of the disease was its unconquerable tendency to relapse; a circumstance common indeed to all intermittents, but existing in these cases in an unusual degree. It probably depended on the greater obstinacy and frequency of the visceral derangements. Dr. Davis is, with some limitations, an advocate for mercury, and still more for purgatives. Bark alone was not admissible, but it was found an useful adjunct. In the more protracted cases, and in those which possessed the typhus tendency, wine and opium were given with freedom. In order to stop the accession of the paroxysm, the author had recourse to other methods,—tobacco, applied externally,—compression of the large vessels,—and the cold affusion: but these do not appear to have been very extensively employed, nor to have been of any very essential service. The drastic purgatives which he used were gamboge, elaterium, and julap; and at the same time he generally gave calomel in small doses, and employed the mercurial ointment: so that, although the purgatives were probably useful, it is not always easy to know what share of the benefit is to be attributed to them, and what belongs to the other remedies. Bark was regarded as more efficacious after the operation of the mercury and the purgatives, and indeed as being seldom admissible before they had been employed.

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The last and certainly the most valuable part of the work is that in which we have an account of the morbid anatomy of the disease, and Dr. Davis relates the appearances that were found on dissection, as seen either by himself or his friends. The seat of disease was very various; in the intestines, the liver, gall bladder, spleen, stomach, heart, pericardium, lungs, and brain. So little, however, was generally known of the previous history, that less information is gained from these dissections than might have been imagined from their number. Had the Doctor been as fond of compression as he is of amplification, he would have arranged these cases on some systematic plan, and have given, in a short compass, the result of the whole. He does indeed subjoin what he calls 'general dissections,' purporting to be a summary of the facts previously detailed: but this summary itself occupies nearly 20 pages, and might with advantage go through two or three of the author's distillations before its grosser parts would be completely separated.

With respect to the general character of this treatise, little remains to be said in addition to what may be inferred from our remarks on its individual parts. The style is heavy, and interspersed with affected expressions; and the author is very lavish of his quotations, which are often brought in without any other assignable object than that of filling up a greater quantity of paper. Still the volume does contain some facts, and therefore is not to be totally disregarded.

Grey and his colleagues when in office. He condemns their backwardness in extending aid to Russia, and, by an easy transition, bestows encomiums on the vigour of their successors in regard to the attack on Copenhagen. Indeed, he is so deeply enamoured of the foreign policy of our present ministers, as to pronounce the Walcheren expedition the only one in which they have failed. A more attentive examination, however, into the discretion of our councils, and the extent of our military means, might have convinced Mr. C. that, while the former can hardly be deemed fit objects of encomium, the latter, improved by progressive acquisitions during a course of eighteen years, had attained a higher character than they bore at any former period of our history.

In pursuance of his plan of vindicating the plans of foreign policy adopted for the last four years, Mr. Courtenay enters into a circumstantial narrative of the events in Spain; a detail which occupies half the pamphlet, and is, in our opinion, less liable to exception than many other parts of it. The author is, indeed, particularly successful in several of his answers to the attempts which have been made to throw censure on the course of military proceedings in the peninsula; though, in expressing this opinion, we would not be understood as exempting the tactics of the Spaniards, nor altogether those of our countrymen, from a liability to severe animadversion, but as maintaining that many of the strictures hitherto passed on them are founded on a misapprehension of the state of Spain, and on hasty views of the situation of the French. Mr. Courtenay concludes with encomiums on the system of *vigour*, and alleges that, though unsuccessful in several of its objects, it has, notwithstanding, tended to *retard* the progress of Bonaparte's aggrandizement. So far from coinciding with him in this idea, we are of opinion that, whether we look to Russia, to Austria, or to Sweden, we shall find that our interference has unfortunately *accelerated* the increase of Bonaparte's influence; and that the best counsel which we could have given to these powers would have consisted in an entreaty to remain at peace till an improvement in their own system, or a deterioration of that of the French, should render the chances of a conflict more equal.

Mr. Courtenay has exerted much industry in scrutinizing official documents; and his habit of referring to specific vouchers for every allegation of consequence should be observed by that numerous class of pamphleteers, who are so positive of being in the right, and so eager to convey their impressions, as generally to omit their authorities. We differ widely from Mr. Courtenay in many of his conclusions, but we approve him as a narrator; and we shall expect with some degree of interest the farther publication which he has promised in his prefatory notice.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1811.

HISTORY.

Art. 15. *Letters on Ancient History*, exhibiting a summary View of the History, Geography, Manners, and Customs of the Assyrian, Babylonian, Median, Persian, Egyptian, Israelitish, and Grecian Nations. By Anne Wilson. 12mo. pp. 331. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

In noticing the poem, the novel, or the moral essays of a lady, a Reviewer may be expected to flatter, lest his humanity, his gallantry, or his generosity should be questioned: but in commenting on an attempt at historic instruction, he is bound to *speak out* by a stronger tie than urbanity. History, unless composed with critical care, is not the memorial of fact, the lesson of experience, the guide of life, the soul of patriotism, the preceptress of nations, the award of justice, the torch of truth; and yet all these important offices it ought to fulfill.

Female historians, moreover, are seldom sufficiently learned in the dead languages to undertake with propriety the department of antient history. Without some Hebrew, much Greek, and more philosophy, it is impossible to give a trust-worthy outline of primæval events; and biblical records may be degraded into a monkish chronicle, or mythology purified into inutility, when consigned to the interpretation of timorous superstition.

The narration before us is thrown into the form of letters. Attempts are made in the first to assign dates to the Creation, the Deluge, and the writing of the Decalogue. About the latest of these events, however, chronologers differ full five hundred years; and the two earlier are in every respect uncertain. The year of 365 days having been invented only 888 years before Christ, and established among the Chaldeans and Ægyptians only about 747 years A.C, we can make no approach to exact reckoning of a prior date. It is questioned whether solar years were at all regularly used a whole millennium before Christ: the older years may have been monsoons, or may have been months.

In the second letter, it is mentioned that God ordered a sort of worship to be paid to him by Adam and Eve in the sacrifice of a young lamb: but no such fact is recorded in the only extant account respecting Adam and Eve.

The tenth chapter of Genesis forms a most valuable document of primæval geography; in which the several subdivisions of countries are described as *children* of the larger division. In her third letter, the fair writer,—ignorant no doubt that in the east Ferishta and other modern historians still employ this same metaphor, and ignorant of the labours of Bochart, Michaelis, and Schloetzer, directed to ascertain the several subdivisions, — quietly transforms these provincial branchings into human pedigrees: which is the same thing as if an English historian were to enumerate, as the children of Middlesex, the several hundreds into which that county is divided. Thus individuals are created who never existed; such as Raamah, who is called (p. 15.) a prince of the Romans, and who is said to have had a son, who dwelt in the country of the Indians. Raamah was a city on the Chebar, situated between Resen and Tel-abib.

In letter the eleventh, (p. 68.) it is said that Cyaxares is called, in the book of Daniel, Darius the Mede: but Anquetil has fully established that the person, called in Daniel *Darius the Mede*, was really the first Darius, the son of Hystaspes of Media. There is no misnomer in the case. — The Cyaxares, who flourished before Cyrus, is here made to destroy Nineveh, which fell almost a century later under Darius. Those ignorant thelogians, who write comments on the Bible in sixpenny numbers, are not thus to be implicitly trusted.

Respecting profane history, also, Mrs. or Miss Wilson has listened to some very credulous guide: not Rollin, the father of the faithful, is easier of belief. Thus (p. 123.) Xerxes is made to invade Greece with a land-force of one million and eight hundred thousand men, and with a sea-force of five hundred and eighteen thousand men. Yet no such army could have subsisted a fortnight in the antient state of agriculture, of roads, and of the arts of military provisioning. If we divide by ten, the numbers will be reduced to possibility: yet even then we shall probably leave much of Greek exaggeration; since the Persian accounts, which are derived by tradition from the original historians of the empire, represent the invasion of Xerxes as the mere attempt of a provincial satrap to punish some Greek insurgents on his frontier.

In thirty letters, the history of the world is carried down to the Roman conquest of Ægypt.—The most praise-worthy feature of the book seems to be this, that it preserves more unity of design, and more singleness of point of view, than we usually find in other universal historians. Babylon is properly made the centre of attention. The struggle of the Greeks for independence is noticed only inasmuch as it interested the Persian Court. So again the captivity of the Jews, the conquest of Alexander, and the revolutions of Ægypt. Accordingly, Rome does not even enter on the scene. This distribution of matter appears to us to deserve the imitation of future historiographers.

Seven letters follow, which include a sketch of Latin, not Greek mythology. The names of the heathen gods should always be given in both languages. Who can understand Homer without having heard of Here, Demeter, and Artemis, as well as of Juno, Ceres, and Diana?

The style of this work is from the first perspicuous and unaffected, and in the concluding letters it is polished and elegant.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 16. *The Temple of Truth:* or the United Church of England and Ireland proved to be "built upon the Prophets and Apostles, Jesus Christ himself being the Chief Corner Stone," and therefore entitled to the faithful Attachment of all those who have been admitted by Baptism into her Communion. By the Rev. Luke Booker, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 70. Cadell and Davies.

Though the Book of Common Prayer be supereminent as a form of public devotion, as a system of doctrine it is open to objection, especially when its language is accurately compared with that of the Holy Scriptures. Many of the most learned of the Clergy have adverted to and lamented this circumstance; confessing that it is not sufficiently purged from the leaven of Popery and reduced to the exact standard of Christ and his Apostles. Dr. Booker, however, makes no admission of this kind. He does not contend for the Liturgy as an inspired composition, but he tells us that 'it is as faultless as any work that ever was produced by fallible men; being accordant *in every part** to Holy Writ.' What are we to say to a writer who makes so round an assertion? Can he find, in the Scriptures, any language respecting the Trinity which will accord with that of the Athanasian Creed? Can he find it asserted in the Scriptures, that the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father *and the Son?* or that Christ's body and blood are "*verily and indeed taken*" in the Sacrament? Is not this last-mentioned phrase copied from the Romish ritual; and ought it to have been retained when the doctrine of transubstantiation was abandoned? We have no desire by these questions to revive controversy, but merely to convince Dr. B. that he is too unqualified in his assertions with regard to the doctrinal perfection of the Liturgy. He complains of the growth of Methodists: but he does not seem to be aware how much the tenets of the Articles assist this thriving sect. Does he not know that their "strange doctrines" are not so strange to his own system as they ought to be made? When he speaks of his being placed over his flock 'by the *Holy Ghost*,' does he not fall into the very fanaticism which he so justly condemns in the Methodists? — and when he represents himself as having been ordained to the sacred office by persons 'to whom *power* and authority thus to act have descended in a regular manner from the first Apostles themselves,' can he expect in this enlightened age to obtain credit? Will Protestants allow the Popes of Rome to be the successors of the Apostles; or shall modern bishops, who obtain a mitre by the interest of a prime minister, be said to have power and authority derived from the Apostles themselves? Surely it would be more discreet to lower these high pretensions; for if the bishops of Rome acted under an authority regularly descending to them from the first Apostles, our separation from their communion, and rejection of their authority, at the Reformation, cannot be justified. If, as Dr. Horsley has said, the book of Common Prayer, with the office for ordaining bishops, &c. be nothing less "*than one long act of Parliament*," the authority of the bishops rests on the law of the land.

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* This assertion is somewhat qualified at p. 48., where the author informs his readers that 'most of the words and phrases of the Liturgy are taken out of the Holy Scriptures, and the rest are the expressions of *the first ages*: so that whoever takes exception at these must quarrel with the *language of the Holy Ghost*, and with the Church *in her greatest innocence*.' Did Dr. B. entirely forget Ecclesiastical History, or did he count on the ignorance of his readers, in making so groundless a remark? If he turns to his books, he will find that the Athanasian Creed was not introduced, and that the dispute about the *Filioque* did not occur, when the Church was 'in her greatest innocence;' and that the words "*verily and indeed taken*" cannot be represented as the language of the Holy Ghost. We did not expect to find, in a publication called *The Temple of Truth*, such gross misrepresentation.

Were we to adopt the vulgarity of proverbial sayings, we would tell Dr. B. that, in his endeavours to repress sectarianism, he does not *hit the right nail on the head*, nor *see where the shoe pinches*. It is in vain to attempt to silence methodistic teachers by this kind of logic; "I am appointed by the Holy Ghost, and therefore I must be in the right; you are not so appointed, and therefore, if you differ from me, you must be all in the wrong." We laugh as much as Dr. B. can do at the *calls* which some illiterate teachers pretend to have received: but the question at issue respects not so much the *source* as the *matter* of their preaching. If the Clergy would follow the line which the spirited *Barrister* has chalked out and recommends in his "Appeals to the Public and the Legislature," viz. a revisal of the Articles, they would effectually check Methodism: but, while they contend for the perfection of their own system, the Methodists know how to turn it against the interests of the Established Church.

We hope that Dr. B. will take these strictures in good part. We applaud his zeal: but, for the sake of *Truth*, we beg him to re-consider the subjects which he has discussed.

Art. 17. *An Address to the Legislature of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, &c.* on Subjects of Importance to the Church and State. By the Rev. Luke Booker, LL.D. Rector of Tedstone Delamere, Herefordshire. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

That the number and increase of separatists from the Established Church should be matter of alarm to the Clergy, and that they should deliberate on means for correcting the evil, can excite no surprize: but it is astonishing that, while they profess a desire to cure the schism, they do not enter fully into an examination of the several causes of nonconformity. Some sectaries demur to the *doctrines* of the Church; some to its *authority;* some to its set *forms;* and some to the *mode in which its ministers are appointed.* To none of these objections does Dr. Booker advert: but he thinks that meeting-houses '*spring up like mushrooms*,' because parish-churches are not sufficiently capacious or not sufficiently numerous; and he therefore proposes enlarged accommodations for those who are willing, but not able, under existing circumstances, to join in the worship of the Church.

Some alteration, Dr. B. thinks, should take place in the mode of licensing sectarian teachers. He tells us a story of a teacher who applied to the magistrates at the quarter-sessions for a licence, 'who could neither *write* nor read:' but, supposing the accuracy of the fact,

which

Notes selected from the short-hand Papers of the late Rev. Newcome Cappe. To which are added, Reflections arising from the several subjects of each Section. By Catharine Cappe. 8vo. pp. 553. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

St. Paul is universally allowed to have been a polite man: but it has been supposed that his gallantry to the ladies was impeached by his prohibiting them to speak in the church; and if women in general could lecture on serious subjects as well as Mrs. Cappe, we should have some ground for lamenting that we cannot occasionally hear a petticoat-preacher. It is fortunate, then, that the press is open to ingenious females, and we would afford them every encouragement in availing themselves of this privilege. As to the publication before us, we feel it our duty not merely to applaud the talents and theological attainments of Mrs. Cappe, but to commend the modesty which she displays in speaking of herself as 'the unlettered amanuensis' of her deceased husband. She appears to have arranged this work for the purpose of preserving and giving to the world the MS. notes of Mr. Cappe on the Evangelists, and to these she wishes to invite the attention of theological readers: but, though she keeps in the back-ground the reflections from her own pen, (which are inserted at the end of each section,) we are disposed to think that they will, by the general reader, be considered as more valuable than her husband's notes. Occasionally, Mrs. Cappe is a commentator as well as a paraphrast; and as her theological opinions are in perfect unison with those of her husband, no dissonance occurs in their joint annotations. The text of the Gospels is given on the scheme of a harmony by Mr. Cappe, and broken into sections, after the manner of Doddridge's "Family Expositor," with *Reflections* substituted for his "*Improvements*." The period of *The public Ministry of Christ* (this ought to have been the title of the work, because the Evangelists do not give the complete *Life* of Christ,) is here considered to have included three passovers, and to have lasted two years and a few months.—To all Unitarian families, this work must be highly acceptable. Mrs. Cappe, being nearly 70 years old, may be indifferent to any praise which we can award her: but we must assure her that by her affectionate zeal for her husband's fame, by her sacred love of divine truth, and by her persevering exertions to advance it, she has won our cordial esteem.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Remarks on a Pamphlet intitled* "the Question concerning the Depreciation of the Currency stated and examined, by William Huskisson, Esq. M. P."—together with several political Maxims regarding Coin and Paper-currency, intended to explain the real Nature and Advantages of the present System. By the Right Honourable Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M. P. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

This second production of Sir John Sinclair may, agreeably to the indication of the title-page, be divided into two parts; 1. Animadversions on the Bullion-Report and on Mr. Huskisson's pamphlet; 2. A series of political maxims, to the number of twelve, explanatory chandise.—Though we have thus specifically enumerated Sir John's political maxims, we cannot give them the praise of either novelty or importance. They consist chiefly of positions which most men of reflection would be ashamed to contradict or not to know, while in two or three points they are totally inadmissible. — After these maxims had been drawn up, Sir John informs us, in a postscript, that he determined to ascertain how far they accorded with the principles of Sir James Steuart; and he experienced a degree of rapture, greatly beyond our powers of description, on discovering that he and that well known writer entertained the same opinions on the subject of money. It will not escape the reader that Sir John takes pains, both by conveying this communication in a postcript and by significantly remarking that he had not looked into Sir James's book for several years, to reserve to himself the full credit of the originality of his maxims; — a claim of which we for our part are ready to leave him in complete possession, only remarking by the way that he betrays a shade of inconsistency in enlisting Sir James Steuart so eagerly into his service, after the sturdy opposition which he had made to the co-operation of Locke with his antagonist Mr. Huskisson.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Sir John Sinclair, Bart.,* on the Subject of his Remarks on Mr. Huskisson's Pamphlet. By a Country-Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 23. 1s. 6d. Stockdale jun.

This country-gentleman seems to write with a knowlege of trade which, unfortunately, is very rare among others of the same class in society. He maintains, in opposition to Sir John's argument, that our paper is actually at a depreciation, and goes at some length into illustrations calculated to shew the effects of such depreciation on inland circulation, as well as on foreign exchange. He expresses himself with conciseness, and with a considerable share of force: but it must be apparent to our readers, from what they have already seen of the complexity of the subject, that so short a tract as this can afford room for only a very limited view of its various and extensive relations.

Art. 22. *Bank-notes the Cause of the Disappearance of Guineas,* and of the Course of Exchange being against us, whilst the Balance of Trade is in our favour; with practicable Means suggested to enable the Bank of England to resume its Payments in Specie, without sustaining any Loss. By T. Hopkins. 8vo. pp. 74. 4s. Murray. 1811.

The preface to this pamphlet exhibits an instance of what may be often remarked in young writers, expressions of great diffidence, united with a secret belief that the work in question is of no slight consequence to the public welfare. 'If,' says Mr. Hopkins, 'the following remarks prove in any degree instrumental in restoring the country to that vigorous state from which it is thought bank-notes have reduced it, the author will *exult in the recollection that he has not written in vain.*' We are sorry that it is out of our power to afford Mr. Hopkins a hope of such exultation: his knowlege of the very intricate subject, which he has ventured to discuss, not appearing to us such as will enable him to labour successfully in the removal of the irregularities of our money-system. After some remarks on the balance of trade, he proceeds to the topic of banking, and expresses (p. 19.) an opinion which is abundantly natural. we must confess, to those who do not know experimentally the risks and anxieties of banking, viz. that an independent fortune is much sooner realized by this mode than by a regular mercantile business. His next object is to shew that the balance of trade is permanently in our favour, but that the baneful operation of bank-notes counteracts this beneficial tendency, and even turns the tide against us. This is the main purport of the tract; and in maintaining it we discover here and there a solitary trace of solid information, as at p. 32. the distrust of Custom-house returns: but we experience much oftener the mortification of finding the author wandering to a distance from the path of right inquiry.

The fourth section relates to the price of bullion and course of exchange. Here it is judiciously remarked (p. 48.) that banking lessens the amount of specie wanted, not only by substituting paper, but by reducing the sum of money which a trader would otherwise be obliged to keep in his hands. Yet so imperfectly has Mr. Hopkins studied the subject, that he alludes, in the same paragraph, to the produce of the American mines as being in a state of decrease:—a reference to the returns of specie from Mexico would soon satisfy him of the contrary. On an error of inadvertence like this we are not disposed to comment with severity: but it would be difficult to deal out too hard measure to some other allegations; for example, the assumption (p. 56) that the Bank of England has been disposed to discount bills to the extent of the whole property of the applicant, and that at this rate our paper currency might be increased to five hundred or a thousand millions. What shall we say to the following *moderate* assertion? (p. 62.) 'Bank-notes are the offspring of the comparatively small sum which the Bank has lent to Government. The indulgence extended to the Bank, in consequence of the trifling sums with which they have, at various times, accommodated the Government, has done incomparably *more real injury* to the nation, than the hundreds of millions which have been borrowed from the rest of the public.' After such specimens of Mr. Hopkins's extravagance, our readers will be disposed to pardon us for declining to exhibit an analysis of his theory. It is directed, not against the Restriction-Act, nor against any late abuse of banking, but (p. 60.) against the whole system of paper-currency, to a degree which we cannot help regarding as very strange in a writer who is apparently acquainted with the practice of business, and is fitted, if we may judge from his style, to comprehend a course of reasoning which would lead to the attainment of sounder views.

LAW.

Art. 23. *On the Power and Privileges of Parliament*, in a Series of Letters addressed to the Rt. Hon. Lord Ellenborough. By Thismiames; first printed in the *Examiner* Sunday Paper. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley. 1810.

This tract may boast of one excellence, which is too rare in these days, namely brevity. It is respectfully penned, and breathes pure

sent at Murder, &c. By U. O'D
Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 146.

When we presume to call for the at
priety and good breeding require tha
concise in stating our business as its nat
of this pamphlet shews that Mr. O'D
jects this rule. If, however, the nobl
should consider him as diffuse and tedio
generally approve of the views and sentin
for we believe that the Noble Lord is
that to render our criminal code rational
judges, to overturn the law, and to rend
approve the attempt of Mr. O·Dedy, and
the doctrine which he exposes: but the
our criminal code must still remain barb
that justice to criminals must repose o
humanity of judges and the obligations
rude repulse which the recent endeavours
of the bar to ameliorate this branch of the
conceive that Mr. O'Dedy is too sanguin
terference, even of Lord Erskine, will be
our criminal code the amendment which h

POETRY.

Art. 25. *The Pleasures of Possession*, or
sent Moment contrasted with those of H
By Charles Verral. Crown 8vo.
man. 1810.

This is a cheerful and harmonious lay;
passages of great novelty or extraordin
possesses so much good nature, — " the
and he persuades

We shall venture to ask the fair author who ever told her that *seen* and *plain*, *laid* and *bed*, *haunt* and *point*, *way* and *thee*, and *sea* and *bay*, &c. could be tolerated as rhymes?

We have reviewed this work chiefly by asking questions; which is as mild a mode of proceeding as we can adopt: yet should this lady, counting on high praise, take our coldness so much *to heart* as to suspend herself by her garter, (which Heaven forbid!) Mr. Southey will probably lay the *felo de se* at our door, and quote our mercy, as he did on a former instance, as a proof of our cruelty and hard-heartedness.

Art. 28. *The Maniac*, with other Poems, by John Lawson. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Burditt. 1810.

As we conjecture, from the insinuations contained in the preface, that the emolument arising from these poems is intended to relieve family distresses, we sincerely wish that they may *sell*: but at the same time our consciences scarcely allow us to desire that they may be *read*. They contain many quibbling passages, and some which have been perhaps unconsciously moulded on the writings of others. In one part we trace a resemblance to Southey's Thalaba, and another seems to be an imitation of Cowper's little poem, "The Rose." However, the lines supposed to be spoken by 'A child at the grave of his mother' are natural, and rather affecting; and since this little volume contains nothing which is offensive to morality, we should rejoice in seeing it meet with that indulgence from others which *critics* are compelled by their situation to withhold.

Art. 29. *Sacred Allegories*; or allegorical Poems, illustrative of Subjects, Moral and Divine; to which is added, an Anacreontic on the Discovery of Vaccination; with an Epilogue to the same. By the Rev. John Williams, M. A. Curate of Stroud, Gloucestershire. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

We have often remarked to little purpose that faith and fancy make a very aukward amalgam; and though we have numerous examples of this bad practice, we cannot become reconciled to it. When the clergy turn poets, they frequently go to their *own shop* for the solid materials, and think to produce an effect by working them up with articles drawn from the storehouse of invention. Mr. Williams has been tempted to proceed on this plan: but his sacred allegories prove, with many other works of the same kind, that, when poetic liberties are taken with religion, more disgust than pleasure is produced. What pretty conceits are the following; that the roses were all white in Paradise previously to the Fall, but that some of them blushed themselves red, as did also the apple, when Eve tasted the forbidden fruit; — that the *white* rose is an emblem of our Saviour's purity, as the *red* is of his bleeding sacrifice; — that the lily sprang up where innocence was buried, and ought to remind us of the righteousness of Christ; — that violets sprang up from the tears of Christ; — and that the thorns on our Saviour's wounded brow burst forth into milk-white flowers?

'The thorn, that wreath'd the Saviour's head,
As if the primal curse were fled;
As if the thorn, with blossoms crown'd,
No more was sent to curse the ground;
But to remind us of the day,
When JESUS took the curse away.
— Yes; whilst the little flow'ry gems
Forth started, from the prickly stems.
On the thorn, his life-blood lay,
Which the petals bore away;
In holy trust, the orient edge
Still retains the sacred pledge;
Still, upon the trembling chives,
See, the hallowed crimson lives!
But, if, beneath a treach'rous sky,
This sacred relic waste and die,
If no faint streak of red appear,
On petal, or chive, thro' all the year;
Yet see where'er the blossom dies,
How thick the deep-stained berries rise;
As if the thorn, once steeped in gore,
Would now those sacred drops restore;
Would now remind us of the day,
When JESUS took the curse away.'

Such poetry may have "the Hall-mark of Orthodoxy," as Warburton said, but it has not the mark of the Parnassian mint.

We do not object to Mr. W.'s poetic mode of accounting for the introduction of vaccination. We transcribe the fiction:

'Cupid, spent with toil, seeks refreshment from the milk-pail of Thirsa — She refuses, unless he will ensure her the affections of her shepherd — The small-pox in the village — She is afraid of losing her charms — Cupid acquiesces in her request — Receive the reward of the promise — He vaccinates her from her cow with his arrow — She, mistaking its import, charges him with ingratitude — He assures her that it is to fulfil his engagements — Some one behind the tree overhears their discourse — The knowledge of this remedy against the small-pox now universally circulated.'

In the epilogue, the author speaks feelingly of the sad ravages made by the small-pox in his own family, and is thankful to the Deity that its fury is restrained.

NOVELS.

Art. 30. *La Nouvelle Arcadie;* &c. *i.e.* The New Arcadia, or the Interior of Two Families. By Augustus La Fontaine. 4 vols. 12mo. Paris. — London, Colburn. Price. 16s sewed. 1810.

Former productions of this author have shewn that he is fond of drawing domestic scenes and family-pictures; and his *dramatis personæ*, though but little diversified, have always "the natural touch" which makes them interesting. His young females are

"best distinguished by black, brown, and fair,"

and their lovers are chiefly employed in combating difficulties and making declarations: but they have invariably the feelings and dispositions which are appropriate to youth; and the elders of the groupe are delineated with some peculiarities of sentiment and traits of individual character.

It appears superfluous to establish rules for the construction of novels, because, if the story amuses, few readers are disposed to criticize the manner in which it is conducted: but there are certain regulations on which even the interest of these compositions in some measure depends; and these are such as relate to the length of time comprized in the narrative, and the number of principal persons to whom the attention is directed. In such respects, the performance before us is censurable, since the loves of the fathers and mothers, and even of the great uncle, precede those of Pylades and Orestes; and the interest is so equally divided among them all, that it is only from these young men being the last of their generation that we are led to consider them as the immediate heroes of the tale.

The Uncle Frantz of M. La Fontaine reminded us rather too forcibly of Sterne's uncle Toby, but his argumentative disquisitions are spirited and humorous, his character is well and happily contrasted with that of Major Wolfenstein, and we think that this work has merit enough to afford pleasure, notwithstanding the errors which we have noticed.

Art 31. *Elise;* &c. *i. e.* Eliza, or Family-Papers. By Augustus La Fontaine. 12mo. 4 vols. Paris.—London, Colburn. Price 14s. sewed. 1810.

More unity of interest is maintained in this than in many others of La Fontaine's novels: it is less crowded with personages; and those who are introduced are not devoid of distinguishing characteristics: but the story would have been improved if some of the temptations and "hair-breadth 'scapes" of Elise and her lover had been omitted, since they advance so often to the brink of the same precipice, that the reader, who at first pitied their trials, will end by condemning their imprudence. The impassioned letters which Elise writes to Carle lose their effect, because they are not accompanied by the doubtful or desponding effusions on his part which are supposed to elicit her unreserved protestations. However, a lesson against self-confidence may be learned from her sorrows; while the danger of encouraging vague hopes and wishes is well exemplified by the disappointments of Henriette.

The sudden change in Madame Block, who, from attempting to corrupt her friend by licentious sophistry, became the careful monitress and guide of her conduct, is not so well explained as its improbability requires; and the heroism displayed by the principal female character in the conclusion is very *surprising*, although our young and fair readers, who will be interested in her adventures, might accuse us of misanthropy, if we ventured to term it *unnatural*.

Art. 32. *The Reformist!!!* a Serio-comic Political Novel. 12mo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1810.

This novel ought to have been intitled the *Visionary* or *Mad* Reformist; for reformation in the abstract is no subject of serio-comic mirth. "Whatever is, is right," in the government of God, but would be a most dangerous and absurd maxim if applied to the arrangements and conduct of man. On the contrary, such is the imperfect state of society, that room for improvement is observable in most human institutions, as well as in every human heart: but the misfortune is that wild and mis-calculating speculatists, under the notion of effecting reforms, do more harm than good. Persons of this description are fair game for the satirist; and the hunting of them, when properly managed, will always give sport. "When we see a man, (to use the words of the motto from Vanbrugh,) whom nature has made no fool, very industrious to appear like an ass," he ought to be ridiculed, and it is for the good of the community that he should. Such is the hero of this little novel; who, though an imaginary character, and caricatured to the very altitude of *extravaganza*, may teach a lesson of caution on the subject of reformists. While, however, we own that we have been diverted by the broad humour which runs through this work, we cannot be such dupes of the preface as to believe that the experience of a lady could have furnished all the scenes which are here delineated; and much less would we attribute to a female pen the great illiberality which occasionally displays itself. The presumption of the Methodists, in designating themselves by the title of *Elect*, may be justly exposed; and facts have proved that some who have affected to be saints have turned out to be sly sinners: but we think that nothing can justify the insinuation that Methodistic preachers are a set of fornicators and adulterers, nor the wholesale aspersion (Vol. i. p. 184.) that 'those who dissent from the established church generally despise the state.'

Percival Ellingford, the prominent character in this picture, is so *outré* in his ardor for Methodism, so sudden in exchanging it for Deism, and so easily brought to renounce the latter for the good orthodox faith, that the portraiture scarcely merits analysis. His exhibition as an O. P., and as the enthusiastic admirer of Sir F. B. and Colonel W., is contrived for the sake of affording the author an opportunity of reprobating the conduct of those public characters, and of conveying her (or his) wish 'that not an *iota* of our government may be altered.' (Vol. 2. p. 41.) The love-stories, and sketches of what is called fashionable life, may give this novel some attraction; and it finishes, like all of its class, in the vulgar catastrophe, a marriage.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Scripture-Geography*, in Two Parts. Containing a Description of the most distinguished Countries and Places noticed in the Holy Scriptures. With a brief Account of the remarkable Historical events connected with the Subject; intended to facilitate the Study of the Holy Bible to young Persons. For the Use of Schools and Families, and illustrated with Maps. By John Toy, private Teacher of Writing, Arithmetic, and Geography. 8vo. pp. 125. 6s. Boards. Scatchard and Co. 1810.

Numerous attempts are made to assist the rising generation in the attainment of useful knowlege; and under this imposing pretext many books are published for the real purpose of puffing into notice an obscure teacher of the elements of science. We cannot penetrate the motive of Mr. Toy in becoming an author: but he has evidently taken pains to compile an instructive work; and though it be not so extensive in its scope as the title implies, (for it is chiefly confined to the geography of the Old Testament, and particularly to Palestine,) and is in several places defective, we do not hesitate to say that on the whole it merits commendation. The map of Judea manifests considerable care, notwithstanding the blunder of the engraver, who, instead of the sea of Gallilee or Gennesereth, has substituted the strange word *Chinnereth*. — Neither in the body of the work nor in the index will the reader find *Chaldea*, the cradle of the human race; though, in a note, some mention of the Chaldeans occurs. It is not only specified that mount Moriah is the same as Calvary, but that here '*Adam was buried*,' for which Mr. Toy has no scriptural authority. He states also that *Tadmor* is the same as Palmyra, and he may quote Wood as evidence: but we must observe that, though we read that "*Solomon built Tadmor in the wilderness*," the ruins of Palmyra do not indicate that this city was ever built by a Jewish prince. *Bethabara*, Mr. Toy asserts, signifies '*a place* of passage;' he should have said, *a house* of passage. Respecting the word *Kirjath Arba*, the antient name of Hebron, Mr. T. notices an idle tradition, which it was unnecessary to relate after the express declaration of Joshua (xiv. 15.) that *Arba* was the name of one of the anakim; and it is equally childish to specify the *Quarantania*, in the tribe of Benjamin, as the mountain to which, *it is said*, the devil took our Saviour to shew him all the kingdoms of the world, and the glory of them. A teacher of geography, who knows the spherical shape of the world, ought not to have retailed to his pupils so idle a hearsay, fit only for the nursery; — and we should think that the misses at Miss Cardin's school, (the lady to whom the work is dedicated) will not understand his '*cognominal* fountain' at p. 50. We must observe, also, that the index is not sufficiently copious. Yet, in spite of errors and defects of this nature, Mr. Toy's details respecting the antient and modern divisions of Palestine, the allotments of the several tribes, and the positions of places named in the O. T., will be of great assistance to those who wish to understand the geography of the Bible.

Art. 34. *Beauties selected from the Writings of the late William Paley, D.D. Archdeacon of Carlisle*, alphabetically arranged. With an Account of his Life, and critical Remarks on some of his peculiar Opinions. By W. Hamilton Reid. 12mo. pp. 325. 4s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1810.

In the IId article of our last Review, we took notice of Mr. Meadley's Life of Dr. Paley, and entered into some view of the character and writings of that deceased dignitary of our Church. Mr. Reid's biography is extracted in a great measure from the volume of Mr.

Meadley: but it is said that 'other sources have not been neglected.' At the end of it, Mr. R. quotes the remarks which we made in our Number for September 1809, in reviewing Dr. P.'s Sermons, because of their coincidence with his own: but in one passage he has entirely mistaken and mis-stated our observation. In saying that "the probe must be particularly applied," we added that "the *un*belief of the believing, the *ir*religion of the religious, and the *im*morality of the moral must be scrutinized;" which Mr. Reid has altered into 'the *un*belief of the *un*believing, the *ir*religion of the *ir*religious, and the *im*morality of the *im*moral.'

Reverting for a moment to the character of Dr. Paley as an author, we might metaphorically speak of him thus. Belonging to that class of writers who have excelled in reasoning, it is not from the storehouse of memory nor from the fabric of imagination that he fits out the vessel which he is about to launch, but from the rope-yard of his logical faculty. His stock or staple of argument is copious, and he uses it all: but he twists rather from fibres than from cords; not sorting nor selecting, nor always distinguishing the weaker from the stouter. He was the sophist of utility, but occasionally *was* the sophist, and pressed arguments of the invalidity of which he must have been aware.

The selections of Mr. Reid, though not always (we think) judicious, are compendious and instructive, and the volume is altogether an acceptable manual. The fragment intitled *Beneficence and Optimism* is very bold; and beautiful *tirades* occur under the heads *Christian Worship*, *Treatment of Domestics*, *Pain*, *Property*, *Resurrection*, *Sabbatical Institutions*, and *the Watch*. The chapter on *the Millenium* is somewhat fanatical.

Art. 35. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Spencer Perceval*, on the Augmentation of a particular Class of Poor Livings without burthening the Public. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1810.

It will be in the recollection of our readers that the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in the last Session of Parliament, made and carried a motion for granting 100,000l. towards the relief of the Poorer Clergy; and that, at the time of making this motion, he intimated that a farther grant or grants would be necessary. The author of this letter is of opinion that the object which Mr. Perceval has in view may be accomplished out of the present property allotted for the support of the Establishment; and that a provision in part may be obtained for the maintenance of the parochial clergy, out of ecclesiastical impropriations. This hint is suggested from the purest motives; and we are sorry to think that it is not very probable that it will be countenanced by the Dignitaries of the Church.

Art. 36. *Instructive Tales.* By Mrs. Trimmer. Collected from the Family Magazine. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Hatchard. 1810.

In their present compact form, these Tales constitute a very rational and consistent publication for the use of the lower class of people. The counsel which they inculcate is pious, wise, and practicable; the rules given in the Appendix for the management of infants, either in philosophy or in religion. Against sectaries he would wage no war but that of reason; and that the field may be taken with success against the *Evangelical Preachers*, as they call themselves, he exhorts his brethren 'to abjure scholastic and obsolete theology, and to preach the plain and simple doctrines of their Master and elder Brother.' The "*Barrister*" does not make a more strenuous attack on the 'mysterious faith and mysterious morality' of this new sect, than Dr. Shaw; yet the latter does not desire to avail himself of any exertion of the secular arm to suppress it. He asks only for the weapons of reason, well knowing that 'error will ever be afraid of reason.'

Speaking to the flock, he says, 'we are not ashamed of the gospel of Christ. Believe not those who would persuade you that we are. But it is of the gospel of men we are ashamed, and with the boldness of truth we own it. We are ashamed of principles which ridicule morality and virtue, subvert every sentiment of good works, shake all the pillars of human society and human felicity, dishonour Jesus Christ, and dethrone the Deity.'—

'If to preach Christ be to make use of his name as a charm, to erect his doctrines as the *labarum* and badge of a party, to entertain you with unintelligible descriptions of an unintelligible faith, to abound in unseemly similies; then we willingly resign that character to its designing professors. But, let me tell you what it is we preach. We preach the *great* "things of God;" we insist on the distinguishing doctrines of Christianity, as contained in the most ancient symbol of the faith — redemption from ignorance, idolatry, and death, by Jesus Christ — upon his life, example, precepts, doctrines, resurrection, ascension, and the immortality which the Saviour brought to light — and upon the precious promises he hath bequeathed us.'—

'It may be asked, are any opinions *damnable*, and in the profession of which we cannot be saved? I hope only those of wilful and obstinate adherence to principles derogatory from the honour of God and his attributes, in opposition to better knowledge.'

Dr. Shaw's opinion of the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian creed may be collected from the last passage; and if the majority of the established priesthood embraced his sentiments, that ecclesiastical reform would take place, which must deprive the Methodists of their proud boast of resting their preaching on the Articles of the Established Church.

Dr. S. discriminates between the Protestant Dissenters of th old school which produced a Lardner, a Benson, a Doddridge, Watts, a Chandler, a Kippis, and a Rees, &c. — 'men who ha done honour to human nature, (he says) to whom we owe the greate obligation in the cultivation of letters, and co-operation in the in provement of political and civil freedom,' — and the modern sect Methodistic dissenters who are growing into fashion, 'to whom th arts owe no improvement, knowlege no advancement, the rights humanity no support, and freedom no countenance.'— It certainly no proof of the progress of reason and good sense, that the frien of the former decline and those of the latter are abundant.

CORRE

ing of Ministers, and of the Northern Unitarian Tract Society, by Israel Worsley. 8vo. 1s. Eaton.

If we mistake not, the subject judiciously chosen for this discourse has had great power to convince and convert several who had entertained doubts respecting Christianity; and, among them, some of considerable rank and station. Mr. Worsley justly remarks that 'when we meet in the garb of religion with a bitter foe, an angry opponent, and a furious persecutor, it is a Saul who is before us. But when we meet with the mild and harmless defender of sacred truth, a lover of God, and at the same time a lover of man, who would serve every one in his highest and injure no one in his most inconsiderable concerns, it is a Paul, a servant of God, and a disciple of Jesus Christ.' — It is difficult to conceive that a reasonable and unbiassed mind should carefully attend to such a reflection, and withhold its assent to the truth of the gospel.

This is the first conclusion on which the preacher justly expatiates. The second which he presents is not less securely established, when he tells us that 'this fact not only exhibits a proof of the truth of Christianity, but also discovers the nature and spirit of that religion which the apostle adopted. In Saul we see the Pharisee and the bigot, but in Paul the man of benevolence, of gentleness, and love. How amiable must that doctrine be which could thus change the nature and feelings of a man, and convert the lion into a lamb!'

Art. 40. *The Duties of the Clergy*, preached at the Visitation of the Rev. James Phillott, D.D., Archdeacon of Bath, June 27th, 1810. By the Rev. R. Warner, Curate of St. James's, Bath, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wilkie and Co.

We do not like this sermon the less for its textual division, and for its old fashioned methodical arrangement. By a judicious paraphrase on 1 Tim. iv. 16. Mr. Warner displays the duties of the clergy on the points of *doctrine* and *example*, and enforces the motives which should influence their minds. The good opinion which the public entertain of Mr. W. as a preacher will not be diminished by this discourse, which is closely adapted to the occasion; and which, by the spirit as well as the justness of its remarks, must have given pleasure to those who heard it.

Art. 41. Preached before the Rev. James Phillott, D. D., Archdeacon of Bath, and the Clergy of the Deanery of Bedminster, at Bedminster Church, June 28, 1810. By the Rev. William Shaw, D.D., Rector of Chelvey, Somerset. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Single sermons are generally dismissed by us with brevity, as containing mere common-place remark; but sometimes they have a peculiar character, and then they demand from us peculiar notice. Such is the discourse before us. Dr. Shaw is a divine who displays the clearness and energy of the philosopher, and who combines manly zeal with true liberality. He has cultivated truth unrestrained by the shackles of system, and he wishes to see the religion of Jesus emancipated from all antient and modern corruptions. No deference is paid by this sensible preacher to the mere authority of great names, either in philosophy or in religion. Against sectaries he would wage no war but that of reason; and that the field may be taken with success against the *Evangelical Preachers*, as they call themselves, he exhorts his brethren 'to abjure scholastic and obsolete theology, and to preach the plain and simple doctrines of their Master and elder Brother.' The "*Barrister*" does not make a more strenuous attack on the 'mysterious faith and mysterious morality' of this new sect, than Dr. Shaw; yet the latter does not desire to avail himself of any exertion of the secular arm to suppress it. He asks only for the weapons of reason, well knowing that 'error will ever be afraid of reason.'

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'If to preach Christ be to make use of his name as a charm, to erect his doctrines as the *labarum* and badge of a party, to entertain you with unintelligible descriptions of an unintelligible faith, to abound in unseemly similies; then we willingly resign that character to its designing professors. But, let me tell you what it is we preach. We preach the *great* "things of God;" we insist on the distinguishing doctrines of Christianity, as contained in the most ancient symbol of the faith — redemption from ignorance, idolatry, and death, by Jesus Christ — upon his life, example, precepts, doctrines, resurrection, ascension, and the immortality which the Saviour brought to light — and upon the precious promises he hath bequeathed us.'—

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CORRES-

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For MARCH, 1811.

Art. I. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London* for the Year 1810. Part II. 4to. 12s. sewed. Nicol and Son.

Papers on Natural History, Chemistry, &c.

On the Parts of Trees primarily impaired by Age. In a Letter from T. A. Knight, *Esq., F.R.S. to Sir Jos. Banks, Bart., P.R.S.*— Most of our readers are no doubt acquainted with Mr. Knight's ingenious experiments on the subject of grafted trees, the results of which were calculated to prove that each variety can be propagated with success for a limited period only, and that the grafted part of the tree always retains the tendency to disease and decay which exists in the parent-plant. With the view of farther illustrating the subject, he gives in the present letter an account of a series of observations made in order to discover what particular organ of the vegetable first exhibits symptoms of decay on the approach of old age. The defect, he conceived, could not be in the root, because it is well known that coppice-woods are cut down and spring up again for an indefinite length of time, without any apparent diminution of their vigour; and long experience has shewn that a healthy root will not produce a healthy graft. Neither did the defect appear to be in the bark; because it was found that, if a diseased branch had a young healthy graft placed on it, the diseased part itself in time became more healthy. It was then natural to conclude that the part in fault is something connected with the buds; probably the leaves, which, as the tree grows old, lose the power of properly elaborating the sap for the purpose of carrying on the vegetable functions.

On the Gizzards of Grazing-Birds. By Everard Home, *Esq. F.R.S.* — In some former researches into the nature of the function of digestion, Mr. Home had remarked that grass is the substance of all others that are employed for food which requires the most preparation; and that, according to the usual œconomy of nature, the ruminating animals, which live principally

cipally on this substance, have organs adapted for the purpose of extracting the utmost possible nourishment from their food. As some birds are in the habit of grazing, such particularly as geese and swans, he was induced to examine their stomachs, in order to observe whether any thing peculiar could be discovered in the structure or mechanism of their gizzards, different from those of other birds. He accordingly compared together the goose and the turkey, and found a marked distinction between them: the turkey's stomach is altogether less muscular; its parts appear to possess less motion on each other, and do not come into contact; whereas, in the goose, the muscular fasciculi are peculiarly powerful, and the opposite sides move on each other and rub down the food, very much like the manner in which this is done by the grinding teeth of ruminating animals.

On the Mode of breeding of the Ovoviviparous Shark, and on the Aeration of the fœtal Blood in different Classes of Animals. By the same.—This paper commences with a minute account of the generative organs of the *Squalus Acanthius*, a fish which is common on the coast of Sussex, accompanied by some good engravings, which sufficiently illustrate the descriptions. Mr. Home then describes the egg of the oviviviparous shark, which he found in the same situation; and the chief peculiarity of which appears to be that the fœtus is surrounded with a gelatinous substance, which has the property of expanding itself very remarkably when moistened with water. This substance was chemically examined by Mr. Brande, and was found to be intermediate between jelly and albumen, but not entirely agreeing with either of them. Mr. Home supposes that one use of this animal-matter is to permit the fœtus to come in contact with water, which may serve to convey to the blood the portion of oxygen that is necessary for the support of life. Two slits were observed on the external membrane of the ovum, which appear expressly intended for the purpose of admitting the water to pass through it. The manner in which the fœtal blood is aerated in the greatest part of the viviparous animals is well known, and a similar structure is to be traced in the inside of the shell of the egg. A membrane, which has a distinct circulation, passes from the body of the animal, and spreads out on the inner surface of the shell, so as to be influenced by the air which penetrates through its pores.—A remarkable peculiarity in the formation of the uterus of the opossum tribe is noticed in the conclusion of this paper. The fœtus is here without a placenta, and therefore its blood cannot be aerated from that of the mother, as in most other viviparous animals: but the defect is supplied by two large lateral open-ings, filled with a gelatinous substance, and communicating with the membranes of the fœtus, through which the air has access to it.

On Cystic Oxide, a new species of Urinary Calculus. By W. H. Wollaston, *M.D. Sec. R. S.* — The author of this paper has distinguished himself by his accurate analysis and discrimination of the different species of urinary calculi; and we have but too much reason for suspecting that the French chemists have obtained the most important of their boasted discoveries on this subject from his labours. In the present memoir, Dr. W. introduces to our notice a new species of calculus, in addition to those which he had previously described with so much correctness. He has seen only two specimens of it; and in one of the cases the disease returned a second time, a circumstance which we believe to be very uncommon. From the experiments that were performed on this new species of calculus, it appears to consist of animal matter without any saline or earthy ingredients; and from some of its properties the author has denominated it *cystic oxide.* — The paper concludes with observations on the urine of animals that subsist on different kinds of food; and as far as such remarks can lead to any conclusion with respect to the human species, it may be inferred that vegetable diet is the most likely to produce calculous concretions in those who are constitutionally predisposed to the disease.

Researches on the Oxymuriatic Acid, its Nature and Combinations; and on the Elements of the Muriatic Acid. With some Experiments on Sulphur and Phosphorus, made in the Laboratory of the Royal Institution. By H. Davy, *Esq. Sec. R.S. Prof. Chem. R.I. F.R.S.E.* — At length, Professor Davy seems to have solved the problem which has so long been unsuccessfully laboured, respecting the composition of the muriatic acid; and he has done this rather by drawing more cautious and correct inferences from known facts, than by striking out any very brilliant discoveries. In making such an observation, we are so far from wishing to detract from his merit, that we conceive it to be a subject of the highest encomium, inasmuch as reasoning is a more excellent faculty than mere dexterity in making experiments. It is very remarkable with respect to this question that Scheele, the discoverer of the oxygenated muriatic acid, had nearly a correct conception of its nature, and of its relation to muriatic acid: but, partly in consequence of the terms which he employed being connected with a theory which was afterward exploded, and partly from the high reputation of Berthollet, who formed a different hypothesis, the opinion of the former was forgotten, and that of the latter universally adopted. That oxygenated muriatic acid contained oxygen, and hence derived its specific properties, appeared to be so clearly established, that it was considered as an incontrovertible datum; all other facts were explained so as to be conformable to it; and some positions, which we must now regard as very extravagant, were consequently embraced, without the fallacy of the fundamental principle being in the least suspected. The first circumstance, which appears to have led Mr. Davy to form correct ideas on this point, was his finding it impossible to procure muriatic acid from oxymuriatic acid without the addition of water or its elements. He also found that charcoal, if perfectly dry and freed from hydrogen, could not abstract the oxygen from oxymuriatic acid-gas; that an oxyd of tin could not be formed in dry oxymuriatic acid; and that phosphoric acid could not be procured from oxymuriatic acid and phosphorus. These and other analogous facts led at last to the conclusion that, when oxygen is procured from oxymuriatic acid, water must be present, and muriatic acid formed; and hence the important inference was deduced, that oxymuriatic acid may be converted into muriatic acid by being combined with hydrogen. It follows that oxymuriatic acid contains no oxygen; and that the opinion entertained, respecting the large quantity of water commonly supposed to be present in muriatic acid-gas, is likewise erroneous. The hydrogen which has been procured from muriatic acid, and which was supposed to be derived from the decomposition of water contained in it, seems to be essential to its composition; and to be that by the addition of which it is converted from oxymuriatic to muriatic acid. It may be questioned whether oxymuriatic acid be properly intitled to the name of an acid; it appears to be in many respects analogous to oxygen, and like this substance it has a powerful tendency to unite with inflammable bodies: it is also strongly negative, and is powerfully attracted by the positive surface of the Galvanic apparatus.—Mr. Davy's discovery will obviously render it necessary to make a considerable alteration in chemical nomenclature: but for the present he continues to employ the old names.

Observations upon Luminous Animals. By J. Macartney, *Esq.*—The author observes that, although this is a subject which has frequently attracted the attention of naturalists, many facts connected with it are incorrectly stated, and many points still undetermined. He states the objects of his paper to be as follow:

'I shall first examine the grounds on which the property of shewing light has been ascribed to certain animals, that either do not possess it, or in which its existence is questionable. I shall next give an account of some luminous species, of which some have been inaccurately described, and others quite unknown. I shall endeavour to explain from my own observations, and the information communicated to me by others, many of the circumstances attending the luminous appearance of the sea. I shall then describe the organs employed for the production of light in certain species; and, lastly, I shall review the opinions which have been entertained respecting the nature and origin of animal light, and relate the experiments I have made for the purpose of elucidating this part of the subject.'

As to the first of the above points, Mr. Macartney's opinion is that, notwithstanding all the accounts which we have to the contrary, the power of emitting light during life does not belong to any individuals of the class of fishes, but that some of them may evolve light after death. The property of being luminous is generally found among the animals of the tribe of *Medusæ*; and, as Mr. M. supposes, it particularly attaches to a species, the distinct existence of which had not been previously ascertained, and to which he gives the name of *medusa scintillans*. It is probable that these animals, which are very minute and of a rounded figure, have been mistaken by some observers for inorganic substances, as particles of an oily or bituminous matter.—The property of emitting light is not, however, confined to the *medusæ*, though it is probable that to them alone must be ascribed the luminous appearance which the sea occasionally presents. Different opinions have been entertained respecting the cause of this phænomenon, and perhaps we are scarcely yet enabled to give a satisfactory explanation of it. Mr. Macartney, in opposition to the opinion of some celebrated naturalists, does not think that the light is increased by immersing the animal in oxygen, but on the contrary that it is equally brilliant when the access of oxygen is prevented. It is displayed only in particular states of the animal, and is either connected with a peculiar organization, or attached to a substance which is diffused through the whole body. The emission of the light is influenced by muscular exertion, and is, to a certain degree, dependent on the volition of the animal.

Observations and Experiments on Pus. By George Pearson, *M.D. F.R.S.* — Having divided his paper into seven sections, Dr. Pearson treats successively of the obvious properties of pus, of the agency of caloric, of water, of alcohol, and of acetous acid; he then makes some comparative observations on pus and mucus, and finishes by drawing a number of general conclusions. He characterizes four different species of pus; 1, the cream-like and equally consistent; 2, the curdy and unequal in consistence; 3, the serous and thin kind; and 4, the thick, viscid, or slimy. These he considers as possessing sufficiently discriminative characters, and as comprehending all the varieties which this fluid assumes in its different states. The experiments are detailed with considerable care and minuteness, but we do not know that the results are particularly interesting; and from the comparative experiments on pus and mucus, no general deduction is made which can enable us, by chemical tests, to distinguish between these substances. The Doctor concludes that pus consists of an animal oxyd, serum, and a peculiar kind of globules; and the salts that are found in pus are the same with those in the serum. Matter expectorated from the lungs consists most frequently of a mixture of both pus and mucus; so that the different methods of distinguishing between the two, even if they could be always accurate, would seldom be applicable to practical purposes.

ASTRONOMY *and* PHILOSOPHY.

Observations on Atmospherical Refraction, as it affects Astronomical Observations; in a Letter from S. Groombridge, *Esq. to the Astronomer Royal.*—The author of this paper is in possession of a four feet circle, constructed by that excellent artist, Mr. Troughton, with which he has performed numerous observations for the purpose of examining the accuracy of the tables and formula of refraction. These observations have been made on circumpolar stars. Now, the mean of the greatest and the least zenith-distance of one of those stars gives, it is well known, the co-latitude of the place; and, since this latter is an invariable quantity, it ought to result, whatever be the stars selected, when all due corrections are applied to the observations. If the result or the co-latitude be not always the same, some of the corrections must be faulty, supposing the observations to be accurately performed. According to Mr. Groombridge, the correction of refraction as deduced by Bradley's formula is erroneous; not Bradley's formula, however, exactly as that great man gave it, but altered according to the suggestion of the late Dr. Maskelyne, in its numerical coefficient. The correction is this: Bradley assumed 57″ to represent the mean refraction at 45°: but this he did on the hypothesis of the sun's parallax being 10.5; whereas, had he used 8″.75 for the sun's parallax, the mean refraction would have been 56″.5. This coefficient, therefore, Mr. G. adopts in Bradley's formula, which then becomes

$$\text{Refraction} = 56''.5 \left\{ \tan.(z-3r) \times \frac{h \times 400}{29.6 \times 350 + h} \right\}$$

z being the zenith-distance, and h the height of the thermometer.

By this formula, correcting the zenith-distances for 13 stars, Mr. G. finds the mean of the sum of the zenith-distances to be 77° 3′ 53″.0908: the mean sum of the refractions being 94″.9377; and the mean sum for twenty-one other stars he finds to be 77° 3′ 50″.5248, and that of the refractions 185″.1357. Twice the co-latitude therefore being different from the two means, some correction is necessary to be applied to the formula of refraction; and to find this correction, he divides 2″.5660, the difference of the polar distances, by 90″.198, the difference of the refractions: whence .0284485 results. This Mr. G. considers as the correcting factor, so that the mean refraction would be

$$56''.5 + 56''.5 \times .0284485, \text{ or } 58''.10734.$$

We confess that we do not perceive the justness of this correction. No doubt, by the method described a correction is obtained: but its theoretical exactness seems to us neither plain nor established. How shall the principle from which it is deduced be stated? — but it is right to lay the whole passage before the reader:

'In the first table, the third column is the mean of the observed zenith-distance corrected by the equations to 1st Jan. 1807; the fourth is the mean of the computed refraction, for each observation; the sixth is the sum of the third and fourth columns, which gives the mean double zenith-distance of the Pole, according to the assumed refraction in the seventh column; the eighth is the correction of the assumed refraction by the factor found ,02845, which is applied to the seventh column, and gives the true double zenith-distance of the Pole in the ninth, the half of which is the corrected co-latitude in the tenth column. It appears that so far as η Ursæ majoris, the sum or difference of the zenith-distances in the seventh column are sufficiently uniform to be used for the correction of the refraction. I then proceed to compare the first thirteen stars, where the zenith-distance below the Pole is less than 60°, with the twenty-one following. From the former thirteen, the mean of the seventh column is 77° 3′ 53″,0908; and the mean sum of the refractions in the fifth column is 94″,9377; from the latter twenty-one the means of the same columns are 77° 3′ 50″,5248 and 185″,1357. The difference of the polar distances, divided by the difference of the sum of the refractions, quotes ,0284485; which being increased by unity, is the factor to be multiplied into the assumed refraction, viz. $56\frac{1}{2}''$. Then the mean refraction at 45° will be $56'',5 \times 1,02845 = 58'',10734$: the co-latitude

$$\frac{77^\circ\ 3'\ 53'',0908 + \overline{94,9377 \times ,02845}}{2} = 38^\circ\ 31'\ 57'',897$$

$$\text{and the latitude} \qquad = 51\ \ 28\ \ 2,103,$$

which will be found the same, from the mean of the corrected co-latitudes in the tenth column, as given by the above thirty-four stars.'

sun passing at the same time through the ce
wires are applied to the upper and lower lin
vision, the eye-glass having a vertical, as we
The centre of the sun is found, knowing th
fixed wires, from that in the centre of the
must be applied for each limb, the differer
winter solstice being 8″; therefore this din
must be noticed. The few opportunities I h
solstices, have produced only eighteen obse
and thirteen at the winter, solstice. The p
small number is, however, satisfactory; th
same period, 1st January 1807, are as follow

	App. zen. dis.	Refraction.	Cor
sum. sols.	27° 59′ 38″,00	0′ 29″,83 +	0′
winter do.	74 52 24,16	3 26,34	

Latitud

The mean obliquity of the ecliptic for the sam

74°	55′	56″,02
28	0	8,68
46	55	47,34
23	27	53,67

The new solar tables state the obliquity of th
23° 27′ 57″, and taking the decrease at half
shews the above result to be very near the trut

It is known that the zenith-distances c
very near the zenith, observed by means
are used for determining the latitudes of

but Mr. Pond, (now Astronomer-Royal,) in a paper inserted in the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1806, by correcting from the mean of circular instruments, proposed to alter it to 51° 28′ 39″.4. In this alteration, however, the coefficient in the formula of refraction was supposed to be 57″. If it had been imagined, according to Mr. Groombridge's proposed alteration, to be 58″.107, &c. then the latitude would have been farther reduced by about 1″.35, and consequently would have been about 51° 28′ 38″, not differing from that of Mr. G. by more than half a second.

The latter part of this paper is occupied in shewing how equations, which are to be corrections to the mean refraction, may be obtained. Such equations depend on the states of the thermometer and barometer.

We think that this memoir is highly creditable to the abilities and assiduity of its author; and the more creditable, because, as we are informed, he has not been induced to study the heavens from the abundance of leisure or the love of science which an academic education has a tendency to inspire, but that, on the contrary, the hours which this specimen shews that he has employed so usefully to science, and so honourably to himself, have been snatched from the busy cares and bustling concerns of mercantile life.

Extract of a Letter from the Rev. John Brinkley, *D.D.F.R.S. Andrew's Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, to the Astronomer Royal, on the annual Parallax of α Lyræ.* — As this extract is important and short, we shall give the whole of it; premising only that the circle of which Dr. B. speaks was begun under Ramsden, and finished by his successor, Mr. Burge, of Piccadilly.

'I have now had sufficient experience of my eight feet circle, to be highly satisfied with it, and have arrived at one conclusion, that it is of importance in astronomy.

'My observations on α Lyræ for the purpose of discovering an annual parallax now amount to 47 in number, viz. 22 near opposition, and 25 near conjunction, and the mean of these gives a result of 2″,52 as the parallax of the annual orbit for that star, and I have no doubt that it exceeds 2″.

'My observations of different circumpolar stars, and of the same star in different states of the thermometer, seem to require a small alteration in the numbers of Dr. Bradley's formula for refraction.

'The formula so altered is

$$\text{Refraction} = 56'',9 \times \text{tang.} \left\{ \text{Zen. dis.} - 3,2\ \text{Refr.} \right\} \times \frac{\text{height of barom.}}{29,6} \times \frac{500}{450 + \text{ther.}}$$

By

discussion. Those reasons still
period, perhaps, when the ingeni
theory its last polish and final form
tion to an examination of it.

ART. II. *A Narrative of a Voyage*
there during 1805, 18c6, and 1807 ;
to Europe by the way of North Am
Sack, Chamberlain to his Prussian
1l. 7s. Boards. Nicol and Son. 18

THE Baron Von Sack has here pre
result of observations made in t
tour, without any pretensions to ex
acuteness, but with great good sense;
not assume the merit of polished ele
its simplicity the fullest confidence
ments. We think that he has laid
considerable obligations, for the intel
respecting a valuable settlement that
obtained all the attention which is
certainly to thank him for removing
probably deterred strangers from visiti
he has exhibited in his own person
effects produced on the health, by a re
of that long calumniated colony.

In pursuance of medical advice,
where the winds were occasionally t
state of his lungs, and took his

in the Surinam river, highly pleased with the general aspect of this part of the coast of Guiana, and attracted by the handsome appearance of the principal town in the colony, Paramaribo. Here he was no sooner settled in a comfortable residence, and introduced to a circle of acquaintance, than he began to make various excursions into the neighbouring district, for the purpose of acquiring information. He appears to have experienced great hospitality and kindness wherever he went: but, as his tours were desultory, and his statements are miscellaneous, (being arranged under no regular heads, but conveyed by letters to friends in Europe, in the order of time in which the several objects were presented to his notice,) we shall content ourselves with selecting a few of the particulars which have struck our minds most forcibly as intitled to attention.

In his first journey to the Commewyne, the author informs us that the species of cotton cultivated in this colony passes generally under the denomination of shrub-cotton, and that each plant produces from half a pound to a pound annually in the two crops. An acre of land is said to contain about three hundred bushes; and a labouring negro of the first class can manage two acres. It is added, however, that the cotton-mills are all built according to the first imperfect invention; and that the negroes are obliged to turn the cylinders by the constant motion of their feet alternately on treddles, which are attached by cords to the cylinders. A model of a much more ingenious contrivance, received from North America, was deemed too complicated in its mechanism to be even tried: but the Baron is clearly of opinion that a very slight alteration in the existing machinery, assisted by the strong sea-breezes which constantly prevail, would produce a very considerable abridgement of human labour, and answer every purpose with equal efficacy.

M. Von Sack's second excursion was to Bluebergh; and in sailing up the Surinam river, he saw with surprise an unfinished canal, connecting that river with the Saramacca; a project which we should have supposed to be unlikely to prosper in a country so well provided with natural means of water-carriage, though a different opinion appears to be entertained in this volume. Indeed, its failure would be sufficiently explained by the strange fancy that has been adopted of cutting it in a zigzag direction, instead of a straight line.—Most of the plantations on the river Surinam produce coffee and sugar; and we extract the description here given of the former:

'The coffee of Surinam is suffered to grow in three stems from the root, and when one of them does not produce plenty of berries, it is cut away, and the best shoot in appearance nearest the root is allowed to grow in its room. The trees are not permitted to grow higher than about five feet, so that the negroes can very easily pluck the berries, for gathering which there are two seasons, the one in May or the beginning of June, and the other in October or the beginning of November[*]. I have to observe, that they often pluck the berries of unequal ripeness, which must greatly injure the quality of the coffee. It is true, when the coffee is washed, the berries which float on the water are separated from the others; but they are only those of the worst quality, or broken pieces, while the half ripe beans remain at the bottom with the best. Now in the description which travellers in Arabia give of the method of gathering coffee there, it is said that the tree is suffered to grow to its natural height, and the berries are gathered by shaking the tree and making them fall on mats placed for them. By this way the Arabians gather only the beans perfectly ripe at the time, and which must give the coffee a more delicate flavour. Happening to mention this circumstance to a director, he replied, that too much time would be lost in gathering all the berries from the trees by this method, and therefore the further preparation of the beans would be too much retarded. Not being a practical planter myself, I am not able to judge how far it might be done without suffering the inconvenience. It is certain that by plucking from the trees the negroes cannot pay the attention necessary to get the ripe ones only, as the berries are sometimes quite red on one side and in an unripe state on the other.

'For all that you may have read of the fine appearance of a coffee plantation, the sight of it would far surpass your expectation; nothing can exceed the beauty of the walks planted with coffee trees, from their pyramidical shape, and from their glossy dark green leaves shining with great brightness, amongst which are hanging the scarlet coloured berries.'

The merits of the sugar-cane are not forgotten:—its vivid green colour, reminding the spectator of the freshness of spring in Europe,—its grateful relish to almost all descriptions of animals,—its nutritious and wholesome qualities, exemplified in the health and plumpness of the negroes, even during the incessant toil of the harvest,—and its salutary power of cleansing the blood, to which the extinction of leprosy among us is ascribed. The construction of the sugar-mills is also

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'[*] A tree will yield each time on an average from one pound to a pound and a half of coffee when pulped and perfectly dried. An acre of land planted with coffee, when favoured by the weather, becomes more profitable than when it is planted with sugar-canes; but its crops are always very precarious, as the blossoms and even the berries are sometimes damaged by the heavy rains, which are much less injurious to sugar-canes; wherefore a planter feels himself best secured in his revenue as soon as he is able to cultivate them both.'

praised, and they have the advantage of being worked by water. The cacao cultivated on the banks of the river is said to be of indifferent quality.

An occurrence on this journey, which strikingly exhibits the frail and fearful tenure by which European superiority is maintained in the new world, shall be related in the author's own language.

'We were now far advanced on our journey when the tide turned; on which Mr. S. told the rowers that this was quite unexpected to him, as he had never been here before, nor had he any acquaintance where he could stay the night; and as the plantation of Bluebergh was not far off, he hoped they would not be discouraged, or feel any unwillingness in rowing a short distance against the stream, and he would give them a dance when they arrived at Bluebergh. The rowing against tide or stream never made any difference when Capt. Stedman was at Surinam; but of late the planters, from motives of humanity, have discontinued this practice, and we should not have required it, but have been provided with a letter to enable us to procure a habitation for the night, had it occurred to Mr. S. that the tide would fail us here. Our negroes gave no answer, but their eyebrows were knit; their foreheads became very much wrinkled; and thay looked at each other with very expressive countenances. Mr. S. was engaged in conversation with a director who was accompanying us, but I could not help observing the negroes, in whose humour a great alteration had evidently taken place. After rowing about ten minutes in the most profound silence, they began a song, which was not in the Surinam negro language, but in their own native African tongue, which of course was understood by none in the barge but themselves. The tune was harsh and the words short, as if they were oppressed by the lips. I looked attentively towards them, with a view of reading in their countenances the meaning of the song, not without some feelings of apprehension, as evening was fast approaching, and we were in a part of the country where the dwelling houses of the plantations were very thinly scattered, and the banks of the river were covered with forests, which, though appropriated to various plantations, still remained in all their native wildness; added to which, we were at no great distance from the habitations of the bush-negroes, a circumstance which appeared peculiarly important to me at the moment, when I recollected the dreadful scenes that had taken place when these negroes first rose upon their masters. But their song was soon finished, and we shortly after arrived at Bluebergh, where Mr. S. kept his word with them, and gave them a dance; and they became perfectly happy. Since my return to Paramaribo, I have been assured that the negroes here have obtained, at several times, information of the revolt at St. Domingo from those who have gone as servants with their masters to Europe, where they learn all that has passed, and relate it again when they return to the colonies. But it seems the negroes at Surinam have not had any such accounts of late, for the revived name of Hayti, by which St. Domingo is called at present, is not known here amongst them.'

Notwithstanding the concluding remark, there appears to be great reason for alarm to the white inhabitants of Surinam, in the independence of certain formidable black tribes, passing under the denomination of *Bush-negroes*, who look down with extreme contempt on their laborious brethren of the plantations, but might very probably foment their occasional jealousies into open rebellion. The Arrawouke Indians are also very odious neighbours: — but in the midst of these extensive plains, at the distance of about sixty miles from Paramaribo, we are astonished to find ourselves suddenly transported into the midst of a Jewish society of considerable numbers, derived from Portuguese Jews, invited to settle by the Dutch Government; and who, after having devoted themselves for some years to agriculture, have at length adopted those habits of commercial speculation for which they have been at all times distinguished. Their principal village is described as very populous, and passes under the name of the Jews' Savannah.

Like many other persons who have resided in the West Indies, and spent their time pleasantly at the hospitable board of the planters, Baron Von Sack entertains great doubts of the propriety of abolishing the slave-trade; and as the act for effecting that great purpose was carried in the English Parliament during his stay in Surinam, he very naturally indulges in some reflections on it. His arguments are far from having altered any of our well-known opinions on this important subject, which we do not feel it necessary again to discuss on the present occasion; contenting ourselves with observing that the doctrines from which we dissent are here advanced with singular modesty, and that they receive, in our judgment, a short but irresistible answer from some of the unquestionable facts related in other parts of the volume. To the waste of negro-labour in the preparation of cotton for manufacture, we have already alluded: it appears at p. 102 that the labour of the same class of men is equally disregarded in the sowing-cultivation of that prime article; and in the same page it is broadly admitted not only that cacao and indigo are sown in this toilsome and unthrifty manner, but even that the negroes employed in extracting the colour from the latter plant (which must first be reduced to a state of putrefaction) frequently become ill, and sometimes die. The want of cattle and of agricultural utensils is likewise the subject of complaint, as producing too severe a demand on the strength of the working negroes; and the females, during the absence of the planters,

ters, who certainly appear to establish many good general regulations respecting the care of their slaves, often miscarry, either from the little care which they take of themselves, or '*from their not having been sufficiently indulged in the article of labour.*' (p. 108.) Is it not perfectly obvious that, when the planter's interest to encourage the breed of negroes shall be permanently increased by a complete prohibition of the importation of fresh slaves from the coast of Africa, these various causes of the destruction of their population will, because they *must*, be removed?

The favourable report made in this volume respecting the salubrity of the climate of Surinam has been already mentioned by us: but in this respect a considerable change is said to have arisen within the short period of twenty-years; and the older inhabitants speak of diseases now happily forgotten, as having been prevalent within their recollection; attributing this wholesome alteration to the admission of free currents of air occasioned by swamps drained and forests cleared away.— The year is divided into two wet and two dry seasons. Light and refreshing showers begin to fall about the middle of April, gradually increasing till the middle of June, when the rain descends in torrents till the end of that month. In July, its violence is greatly mitigated; and the long dry season begins in August and lasts till November. December and January constitute the short rainy season; while February and March form the short dry period. The changes in the weather are always gradual, the highest degree of heat experienced by the author having been 91° by Fahrenheit, the lowest 75°; and at that time when the heat might naturally be expected to be most oppressive, the sea-breezes produced a constant affusion of cool and delightful air, from ten in the morning till five in the evening. Various instances of longevity are recited: but the new comer from Europe is repeatedly cautioned against the dangerous hospitality of his thoughtless and warm-hearted hosts.

We are compelled to take only a brief notice of the author's various and instructive observations in natural history. The Cameleon of these parts, commonly called here the Agamma, is considered as having no power to assume any other colours than the brown and the green; by means of both which it is enabled to elude pursuit, being confounded in the one case with the bark of trees, and in the other with their leaves. Its changes are wonderfully rapid, and its verdant hue is often surprisingly vivid. The head sometimes is seen of a dull blue colour. Its capability of abstaining from nourishment, like other cold-blooded animals, which lose nothing by perspiration, gives some foundation for the fable of its living on air.

The country surrounding Surinam produces two species of the Sloth, of which the *three-toed*, or the sheep-sloth, so called from the curliness of its grey hair, resembling moss, and concealing it among the trees, is the most remarkable. The proverbial laziness of this loathsome creature is here imputed to its being a nocturnal animal, very unwilling to be disturbed in the enjoyment of that repose which nature prompts it to take in the day-time. Baron Von Sack saw one of them climb a tree with tolerable nimbleness, at the approach of evening; and he discovered that the Sloth ruminates, is possessed of four stomachs, and can go without sustenance forty days.

Of the varieties of the Monkey-tribe, some are domesticated in families, and all have established a certain claim to the sympathy and reluctant familiarity of man. When a sportsman levelled his musket at a *Quatta*, the creature erected itself, and cried "Ho! ho!" in a manner so nearly in imitation of the human species, that the gunner was instantly disarmed. The Baron offered a large reward to a mulatto hunter, if he would procure him a howling Baboon, or Rattler; and the mulatto, in enumerating the difficulties of his task, gravely observed, "when the baboon is sitting and *preaching* before the others, I would not shoot him." Some of the monkies called Sapajous make as much use of their prehensile tails, as an elephant does of his proboscis; and one particular species, the Keeseekeesee, is a great favourite with the ladies of Paramaribo:—who are accused of a strange practice, in carrying occasionally a *lizard* in their bosom for the sake of coolness. These animals are very numerous; one sort, called the *Cayman*, grows to the length of five feet, and is honoured by the title of Crocodile; and the *Eguanna* is esteemed the most delicious animal-food that is produced in the colony.

In June 1807 the author quitted Surinam for the United States, where he visited most of the principal cities. That of Washington does not appear to have made a progress proportioned to the advantages of its situation: but we imagine that the cause here assigned for its backward state of improvement, viz. that speculators had raised the price of the ground to a ruinous extent, cannot long continue to operate. The navy-yard and the store-houses are said to be the most forward buildings in the city; the situations of the capitol and the President's house, though inconveniently distant from each other, are described as very fine, and commanding noble prospects; they are built of hewn stone, but their architecture does not receive a very decided eulogy. Hackney-coaches are established in this town, but subject to a curious regulation, by which they admit as many persons as they have seats, like stage-coaches; and the passengers are driven to their several points of destination, according to the order of time in which their places were secured.

When at Washington, the traveller could not refrain from visiting the residence of the illustrious man to whom that city is indebted for its name, and the republic for its existence:

> 'Mount Vernon is in a most beautiful situation on the river Potomack, which is here esteemed near two miles wide, and the mountain is considered about two hundred yards above the level of the river, which gives it a very extensive view. The house of the late General Washington is of wood, two stories high, with a lofty portico, shading both stories, and supported by eight pillars; a wing of one story high is attached to each side of the house. In front is a park laid out in the modern European style. The present possessor of Mount Vernon, Bushrod Washington, Esq. nephew to the late General, was on a visit in the neighbourhood; but the gardener shewed me the interior parts of the house. It consists of one large apartment, and some smaller adjacent; the furniture has been changed since the death of the General, but there are two objects left in the place where they had been originally deposited, and afford room enough for much contemplation; the first is the portrait of Lewis XVI. sent by himself to General Washington; and the second is the key of the Bastile, sent by the National Convention to him when he was President.
>
> 'All I could learn from the old servant of the General confirmed that George Washington mostly preferred a private life, and only accepted a public place at the great solicitation of his countrymen.
>
> 'I went to visit his remains in the place of interment; the coffin stands in a vault built of brick, and in the most simple style, but it is expected that when the spirit of parties shall have more evaporated, the nation will unanimously vote him a suitable monument as a testimony of public gratitude.'

On his return to Philadelphia, the Baron was tempted to inspect the gaol, to which he pays the tribute of his applause. From the extraordinary fact that some of the convicts in solitary cells were infected with the yellow fever, he is led to infer that this disease must in all probability derive its origin from some permanent cause; and he believes that cause, both at Philadelphia and New York, to be the imperfect drainage of the swamps. Many of his remarks on that fatal pestilence are deserving of attention.

The expence of travelling in America, as exemplified in a very striking instance, is lamented by the author with a *naïveté* of which we could produce other specimens:

> 'Travelling is here very expensive; in the hotels they charge for the day of arrival as a full day, though the passenger comes very late, and also at the departure they charge the same, though you set

therefore it is better to submit to their deman

The reader will not wonder that th
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however, encountered and overcame a
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ourselves on the eve of parting comp
nothing remained for us but to an
in Europe, when our leisurely perus
pages received a sudden shock from a
poetical picture, though not in a perfe
alarming storm, which threatened the
to Lisbon :

'One day the weather became particu
the sun rose the sky was clear, and the oce
colour; but some heavy clouds appeared
gradually increased, and spreading over
rays of the sun, which now appeared thr
mous red glowing fire ball ; *the mournful*
in the rigging ; *the ocean changed its colour*
waves were rising in different forms as so ma
with which they dashed against the vessel
rocks ; by the increase of the hurricane
mountains, on which the foam appeared l
Alps : the ship was shaken through all h
bat of the two powerful elements, our neu
dashed to pieces.'

We rejoice to be able to conclude o
the author escaped from all his perils,

Art. III. *Annals of the Honourable East India Company*, from their Establishment by the Charter of Queen Elizabeth, 1600, to the Union of the London and English East India Companies, 1707-8. By John Bruce, Esq. M.P. and F.R.S. Keeper of His Majesty's State Papers, and Historiographer to the Honourable East India Company. 4to. 3 Vols. 4l. 10s. Boards. Black, Parry, and Kingsbury. 1810.

The history of the East India Company is no doubt a very considerable object. Yet merely in its mercantile capacity, we know not that this body is intitled to much more of our time and attention than any other trading association on a large scale, — more than the Bank of England, for example; and we are convinced that it does not call for such notice on account of its superior contribution to the welfare of the country. The capital which the Company has employed would have enriched other departments of trade, if no connection with India had ever been established; and it would have yielded a profit altogether as large as the greatest dividend on their capital that the proprietors of East India stock ever received. If this company, then, be an object claiming any extraordinary portion of the attention of mankind, it is owing to the remarkable train of circumstances which has subjected a vast and populous country to the sway of these chartered merchants.

It happens, however, that the labours of Mr. Bruce terminate long before he reaches the point of time at which the Company was any thing but a trading association, and a trading association of no very great importance. Unfortunately for him, therefore, the objects which the rays of his genius had to illustrate were rather of the homely and ordinary description; they had in them nothing very new, very great, or very interesting; the events were neither splendid in themselves, nor instructive in the way of inference. Nevertheless, Mr. Bruce has found motives for bestowing on them three handsome and portly quarto volumes. Were the history of India to be continued down to the present time by this gentleman, or by any other equally elaborate writer, with a similar degree of careful attention to all events of similar magnitude, "the Universal History, Ancient and Modern," might blush to see how scanty would appear its volumes in comparison.

We agree with Mr. Bruce, nevertheless, that the importance which the subsequent fortunes of the East India Company have acquired, sheds a portion of lustre on the obscure proceedings of its early days; and curiosity finds some gratification in becoming acquainted with matters even of *no* interest, when they are associated in certain modes with those which are of *great* in-

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modifications which it appears t
we are enabled to pursue on the
preface being exclusively devot
with a proper conception of the h
he is about to enter. The follow
we regard as important for our p

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ment in 1600, to the Union of the
Companies, in 1707-8, form a subo
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progress of the greatest commercial A
in any country, or in any age.

'The evidence upon which this Re
proceeded, has been drawn from doc
Majesty's Archives, in the State-Pape
of the Company, in the Indian Regist
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mitted to them, to the Proprietors of I
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'The events which this branch of
will explain the basis of the East India
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a subject for deliberation and decision
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'In the introduction are traced the
tuguese and Dutch establishments in
characters of the Asiatic Sovereignti
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'Chapter II., after tracing the political and commercial relations of England, from the Restoration, in 1660-61, to the Revolution, in 1688-89, and the events affecting the Indian Sovereignties, in the countries in which the London East-India Company had established Factories, or seats of trade, will discover, in a similar manner, the perseverance of this Company, in maintaining their trade and privileges, and their expensive and hazardous efforts, to extend the commerce and navigation of the realm.

'Chapter III., after referring to the political and commercial relations of England, from 1688-89, to 1707-8, will discover the sources and characters of the successive speculations for an open, and for a separate trade, which terminated in the establishment of a Second, or the English, East-India Company; and will bring under notice, the facts which satisfied the Legislature, and the public, of the necessity of entrusting the East-India trade, to the exclusive management of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East-Indies.

'To the annals of each of these periods are subjoined results, affording, from authentic evidence, the progressive aspects of the Company's Rights, under their Charters, to their Factories and Settlements, acquired by authorized purchase, or by grants from the Native Princes and States; and of the Rights conferred on them by the Legislature, and enjoyed as valuable privileges of trade. These real rights of the Company, under their successive Charters, have been known, in their proceedings at home and abroad, under the general description of "*Dead Stock*," opposed to the large amounts vested in India Stock, in Shipping, in Exports, and in Imports, known under the opposite description of "*Quick Stock*."

'For more than a century, or from 1707-8 to the present time, the East India Company have been recognized, by a series of Acts of the Legislature, to have a real property in their Chartered Rights, which are perpetual, and with succession; though it will again be for the wisdom of Parliament to decide, whether their exclusive privileges, founded on the solid basis of the experience of two centuries, shall be prolonged to them, or whether they must give way to exploded, or to specious, but hazardous, theories of commerce.'

On the first of these paragraphs we have no particular observation to make. With regard to the second, we readily join our testimony to that of the author, in praise of the sources from which his information has been drawn. His situation, indeed, was peculiarly favourable. The public documents, preserved either in the depositaries of the Company or in those of the Government, were all open to his inspection; and we see no reason to question either his fidelity or his diligence. Indeed, with regard to all the facts relative to the history of the Company, during the period which his undertaking embraces, we should have no hesitation in referring to him as an authority, and in stating that he will save the future historian much labour.

This, in our opinion, is no trifling allotment of praise: but will the author be contented with it? We suspect that he will not: yet we fear that we shall have little more to bestow on him.

In the third of the above paragraphs, Mr. Bruce says, 'the events which this branch of commercial history ascertain, will explain the basis of the East India Company's rights, under their charters, and of the rights acquired during the early periods of their exclusive privileges of trade.' This is as much as to say that the history of the Company's rights is the history of the Company's rights; which, whatever in this passage be the meaning of the word *rights*, we cannot of course contradict. If we should observe that the proposition appears to us to be rather of the insignificant cast, the author may remark that what is insignificant in a *logical* is often far from despicable in a *rhetorical* point of view; and that what is weak to the purpose of truth may be strong to the purpose of error; — in which assertions, an unhappy experience compels us to lend him our ready concurrence. — Mr. B. goes on: 'and the knowledge of them (of the said rights of the Company) may be useful to the legislature, when these privileges shall again become a subject for deliberation and decision, and tend to fix the opinions of the public on a question of great national importance.' The event which the author has here in full view is the expiration of the Company's charter, in the year 1814; at which period, the whole of the Company's rights to the exclusive trade and to the government of India will become extinct, unless Parliament can be induced to renew them. If Mr. Bruce means to intimate, as we believe that he does, that, because Parliament gave exclusive privileges to the Company a century or two centuries ago, therefore it ought to grant to them exclusive privileges now, we must declare that we cannot see the necessity and legitimacy of the conclusion. It is at least possible that Parliament formerly established or continued these exclusive privileges when it ought to have done the contrary; and it is more possible that, even if Parliament did right in granting for a limited time these privileges at a former period, it would do very wrong to continue them now. Yet that what has been, whether right or wrong, should form the rule of what always shall be, is a maxim which high and mighty names will support; and great is the host of tongues and pens ready both to argue and to calumniate on its behalf: — but, notwithstanding such a weight of persuasion, we cannot adopt the principle; for as it would eternally, if faithfully followed, have chained mankind in the lowest state of barbarity in which they were ever plunged, so it would now, if carried effectually into practice, put a final stop to the progress of civilization, —

and a speculative conclusion, leading to such practical results, we cannot prevail on ourselves to adopt.

When the author says that a knowlege of the original establishment of the rights of the Company will be conducive to a just decision on the question now coming forwards for discussion, we cannot presume absolutely to assert that any species of knowlege is totally useless: but sure we are that it is not the former establishment but the present benefit of these rights which ought to determine the question of their renewal. If Mr. Bruce can make it evident that the exclusive privileges of the East India Company are conducive to national good, or even that they are not hostile to it, we shall admit that they ought to be renewed: but if this cannot be done, or still more if on the other hand it can be shewn that they *are noxious* in the highest degree, we ought to thank God if the time be come for their utter extinction. If it be said that they ought to continue merely because they once began, then there is no evil which ought not to be eternal; the enemies of mankind would be they who arrested the progress of mischief; right would be wrong and wrong would be right; reason would be useless, injury would be remediless, and virtue would be hopeless.

The four succeeding paragraphs in the extract, which briefly describe the subject-matter of the four great divisions of the work, offer no particular occasion for remark. The two concluding paragraphs exhibit rather more fully the design of the author, which was obscurely signified in paragraph the third; viz. to persuade the public that the fact of the Company's having enjoyed exclusive privileges in time past, ought to be conclusive evidence that the Company should have the same privileges in all time to come. The Company, he says, 'have been recognized, by a series of acts of the legislature, to have a real property in their chartered rights.' These terms, *property* and *rights*, are imposing names. We all recollect what use was made by the revolutionizers in France of the phrase *rights of man*; in this country, it became the object of the most intense hatred, in which we doubt not that Mr. Bruce took a full share:—but, though the words *rights of man* have thus become odious and contemptible, Mr. B. seems to think that the words *rights of Company* ought to be all-powerful. This position we condemn; because the very circumstance in the phrase *rights of man*, which rendered it an instrument of delusion, exists also in the phrase *rights of Company*, and equally constitutes, as Mr. Bruce attempts to use it, a medium of deception. The cause of delusion in both phrases is their indefiniteness, and hence their aptness to be made to import much more than they ought. Under the term *chartered rights*, Mr. Bruce includes what he pleases, even *per-*

petuity, as we here see; — 'their chartered rights,' he says, 'which are perpetual.'—Are *patents* eternal? Are they not, on the contrary, always of short duration, in order that the individual may first obtain his reward, and the community then derive unrestricted benefit?

Before we allow Mr. Bruce, or any other advocate of the Company, to found any conclusion on the term *chartered rights*, we are intitled to call on them to explain to us what they mean by the words. 'Chartered rights,' we should suppose, mean the rights conferred by their charter: — but the charter which secures the exclusive trade and the government of India expires in 1814, and along with it, by inevitable necessity, all the rights which it confers. What purpose, then, except that of delusion, is the word *perpetual*, in the passage before us, calculated to serve? Parliament, Mr. B. says, has recognized *the Company's property in their chartered rights*. Most true; and it not only recognized them but ordained that these rights should exist for a limited term of years, which term of years expires in 1814. All insinuations, therefore, and all clandestine inferences with regard to permanency, founded on the previous existence of temporary rights, are fraudulent, and must not pass. The term granted to the Company for the exercise of monopoly and sovereign power is now drawing to a close; and whether it shall be renewed is a question which ought to depend entirely on the public good or evil that is likely to flow from such a measure. If this be the criterion adopted, the controversy needs not be very tedious; and indeed the Company distinctly betrays its despair if it shall be compelled to take post on the bare ground of utility, when it employs engineers like Mr. Bruce to threw up, by forestalment, ramparts formed of such materials as 'chartered rights,' &c.

Mr. Bruce, and the Company, have however more than one set of phrases, by which they attempt to impose on the public. We are here told of 'the solid basis of the experience of two centuries,' and of 'the specious but hazardous theories of commerce!' That we have had two centuries' experience of the chartered rights of the Company is very true; and we believe it fully satisfies all disinterested and rational men that we ought no longer to submit to such an evil. Of 'exploded and specious, but hazardous theories of commerce,' opposed to the monopoly, we know none: but the whole experience of the British nation, the mistress of trade,—which has risen above other nations in commercial prosperity only in proportion as she has divested herself of the shackles of monopoly,—pronounces its condemnation in emphatic terms, and upbraids our folly and weakness for not having delivered ourselves from such an instrument of oppression at an earlier opportunity. In truth, the language which Mr. Bruce has here employed deserves, if we could submit to inflict it, a chastisement which might operate *in terrorem.* 'Exploded theories of commerce,' — 'specious, but hazardous theories of commerce !' — against whom does the reader suppose that these words of hackneyed abuse are directed ? Against the great founder of the science of political economy, against the author of "the Wealth of Nations !" —It is that science to which nations, in a practical sense, are already so much indebted, that Mr. Bruce stigmatizes with the epithets of 'exploded' and 'specious but hazardous ;' as if he were talking to a public no better instructed than to be thus treated. Mr. Bruce's sagacity, indeed, shewed him that between the science of political economy, and the 'chartered rights' for which it was his office to contend, an irreconcileable enmity prevailed ; and that the one could be supported only by the subversion of the other. On this point we are perfectly of his opinion : but, since the science ought either to destroy the monopoly or the monopoly to crush the science, something better than Mr. B.'s vague terms must be presented for reasons against the science, or we shall decide against the monopoly with an additional degree of confidence.

Mr. Bruce is abundant in zeal, and his three volumes attest that he is not defective in words. His arguments are of two sorts ; either terms of unsupported censure, such as we have just noticed, or the information that the 'chartered rights' have existed until now. The *star-chamber* once existed : — arbitrary imprisonment once existed : — ship-money once existed ; — and these and a thousand other evils would have existed till this hour, if Mr. Bruce's argument had been good for any thing ; and if the nation had not acquired too much sense and spirit any longer to endure them. If the East India Company be a less *galling* burthen, we dare undertake to prove that it is not a less *real* grievance ; and still fewer reasons of any collateral sort can be alleged in favour of continuing to submit to it.

Having made these strictures on the purpose for which Mr. Bruce informs us he has compiled the present history, viz. to furnish reasons for the renewal of the Company's monopoly, we must now endeavour to give our readers as just a conception as we can supply of the historical matter itself. The introduction to the first chapter (for we have an introduction to each,) is destined by its author to exhibit an account of the rise and progress of the intercourse of the European maritime nations with the East Indies. First, as the discoverers of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, come the Portuguese; whose communication with the East, and the power which they were in that quarter enabled to establish, occupy several pages of Mr. Bruce's preliminary labours. The people who first interfered with Portugal's exclusive enjoyment of Indian traffic, and of European empire in India, were the Dutch. The commencement of their voyages in that direction, and the progress of their acquisitions in territory and trade, till towards the end of the seventeenth century, form the next part of the introductory information afforded us; in which their jealousy of the English, and the furious efforts which they made to exclude us from all participation in the spoils of the East, are mentioned with the requisite indignation. We shall quote the concluding paragraphs of the passage relating to the Dutch, on account of an observation or two which they suggest, and of some strokes characteristic of the hand of the author which they exhibit:

'This sketch of the progress of the Dutch, in the East Indies, discovers, by a reference to the history of Portugal and of England, at this time, that their success, both in acquiring the trade, and in getting possession of settlements, is rather to be ascribed to the political weakness of their European rivals, than to the probity of their own commercial proceedings. The Portuguese settlements in the East, when the Dutch first interfered with them, were strong; but that strength was allowed to exhaust itself, by the crown of Portugal becoming a dependency on that of Spain: — fleets and reinforcements were no longer sent to enable the officers, who commanded, to resist the successive depredations and attacks of the Dutch.

'The English Company's equipments and force, in a similar manner, were first weakened by the licences granted to individuals for private trade, contrary to the exclusive privileges of the London Company; and next, by those civil confusions, which arose out of the pretended enthusiasm of the leaders of factions, for liberties on which they were to trample, and to raise themselves to power; a power which, at last, centered in one usurper, who levelled all distinctions, but those which he made subservient to the maintenance of his authority. In this situation, a war between England and Holland ensued, in 1652; and when we come to treat of the actual situation of the London Company's rights, at the time when peace was concluded between these powers, in 1654, we shall have to mention the restitution of Polaroon to the English, and a most inadequate compensation which the Dutch paid, for their admitted atrocities at Amboyna, in 1622.'

The author says that one cause of mischief to England, and of benefit to the Dutch, was that 'licences were granted to individuals for private trade.' Our readers are probably aware of the controversy which exists between the merchants of England and the East India Company, on the subject of private trade. Importuned by the merchants, and ashamed of supporting the monopoly, our statesmen, at the time of the last renewal of the charter, insisted on an admission of private traders: — the Company remonstrated, and clamoured: — but, as the statesmen were firm, it behoved the Company ultimately to yield. The Directors had sufficient address, however, to get the admission clogged with a condition; and the private traders were constrained to convey their goods through the ships and other channels of the Company. The merchants have complained that this condition has operated as a nullification, almost entire, of the grant; and they have been answered by the Company with loud protests against the injury which the latter would sustain by the interference of private trade. Long memorials have been written, and much correspondence and debate have been wasted, on the subject. Mr. Bruce, by a sort of necessary consequence, is zealous on the side of the Company: but it was not very safe for him, on this point, to speak strongly; because Lord Melville, his patron, is on one side of the question, and the Company, his patron, is on the other. As often, however, as private traders, or *interlopers*, as he delights to call them, can be represented as a cause of mischief, he dips his pen in gall, and writes them down in large letters.

Another cause of the calamities at this period sustained in the East Indies was derived, as Mr. Bruce informs us, from 'those civil confusions which arose out of the pretended enthusiasm of the leaders of factions, for liberties,' &c. A large and powerful class exists among us, of whom Mr. Bruce is one, who never miss an opportunity to impute all the calamities which society has at any time sustained, *to liberty*, *to enthusiasm for liberty*. The 'civil confusions,' to which Mr. Bruce alludes, are those which arose in the time of Charles the First. It is well known that this Prince had formed a design to subvert entirely the liberties of his country; that with the commencement of his reign he began to carry his scheme into execution; and that the resistance which these plans called forth terminated in the civil war to which Mr. Bruce alludes. Of this calamity, whatever be its amount, who can justly ascribe the whole to the resistance, and no part of it to the despotic proceedings which gave occasion to that resistance? Why should *the enthusiasm for liberty*, and not *the lust of despotic power*, be always assigned as the cause of the civil confusions which Mr. Bruce deplores? This is a fallacy highly characteristic of the enemies of that liberty which this country now enjoys.

Mr. Bruce immediately afterward presents us with another such fallacy. 'Pretended enthusiasm,' he says, 'of the leaders of factions for liberties on which they were to trample.' If any individuals arise, in the course of a struggle with arbitrary power, who become the authors of mischief, the same designs are attributed by the advocates of despotism to every man who is engaged against them in the contest. Mr. Bruce, we see, never hesitates a moment to class Hampden with Cromwell. *Pretended* enthusiasm is ascribed, without distinction, to all the leaders in the resistance to Charles; and the guilt of any evil that ensued is imputed to one as much as to another. That the reader may the better know what opinion he should entertain of the design with which such perversions of history are attempted, we shall quote a short passage from Hume, the professed apologist of the Prince against whom the opposition in question was raised:

> "The House of Commons," says Hume, Hist. of England, vol. vi. p. 203. "was almost entirely governed by a set of men of the most uncommon capacity, and the largest views: men who were now formed into a regular party, and united, as well by fixed aims and projects, as by the hardships which some of them had undergone in prosecution of them. Among these we may mention the names of Sir Edward Coke, Sir Edwin Sandys, Sir Robert Philips, Sir Francis Seymour, Sir Dudley Digges, Sir John Elliot, Sir Thomas Wentworth, Mr. Selden, and Mr. Pym. Animated with a warm regard to liberty, these generous patriots saw with regret an unbounded power exercised by the crown, and were resolved to seize the opportunity which the king's necessities offered them, of reducing the prerogative within more reasonable compass. Though their ancestors had blindly given way to practices and precedents favourable to kingly power, and had been able, notwithstanding, to preserve some small remains of liberty, it would be impossible, they thought, when all these pretensions were methodized, and prosecuted by the increasing knowledge of the age, to maintain any shadow of popular government, in opposition to such unlimited authority in the sovereign. It was necessary to fix a choice: either to abandon entirely the privileges of the people, or to secure them by firmer and more precise barriers than the constitution had hitherto provided for them. In this dilemma, men of such aspiring geniuses and such independent fortunes could not long deliberate: they boldly embraced the side of freedom, and resolved to grant no supplies to their necessitous prince without extorting concessions in favour of civil liberty. The end they esteemed beneficent and noble: the means, regular and constitutional."

These are the men whom Mr. Bruce stigmatizes as the 'leaders of factions;' these are the views which he describes as the *pretended* enthusiasm of liberty; these are the determinanations which he represents as the wicked cause of all the 'civil confusions!' Could such advocates of arbitrary power become its victims, without involving better men in the same calamities, it would be a righteous doom to let them reap the harvest which they are so eager to sow. Servility might not always save either their persons from shackles or their gains from seizure. — We are really indignant at seeing such sentiments current in the days of George the Third. Would this our revered monarch be now covered with the blessings of his people, if such language had prevailed in the year 1688; or even if victory had established it by the swords of some of Mr. Bruce's countrymen in still later times?

From Mr. Bruce's politics, however, we must return to his history. After the account, which we have already mentioned, of the Portuguese and Dutch connection with the East Indies, he gives a short outline of the Mogul history, from Timur to Aurengzebe, chiefly extracted from Rennel and Dow; and what he calls an account of 'the political and commercial relations of the maritime powers, whose subjects had embarked in the trade between Europe and the East Indies.' This latter part is chiefly remarkable for the vast display of references to documents in the state-paper-office. That which was known to all the world, or which, to the present purpose, was of no use to be known, Mr. Bruce affords us the high satisfaction of learning, has documents to prove it in the state-paper-office!

After this preliminary information, the annalist enters on the proper business of the work. Chapter I. contains 'a review of the Annals of the London East India Company, from its establishment from the charter of Queen Elizabeth (1600), to the restoration of its privileges by the charter of King Charles II. (1661).' — We must here insert a remark for which the reader of this history will have frequent occasion. Mr. Bruce appears to us to write with less knowlege of, or less regard to, the meaning of words, than almost any author whom we recollect to have perused. In the title of his first chapter, which we have just quoted in his own words, we see that he calls the chapter 'a review of the annals:' but the work itself he calls 'The Annals;' and according to him, therefore, 'the annals,' and 'a review of the annals,' are one and the same thing.

The following is an account of the first voyage which the Company made as an incorporate body:

'On the 8th of October 1600, the following shipping were taken up, for the first voyage, and assigned over to five of the Committees, in trust for the Adventurers:

	Men.	Tons.
The Malice Scourge -	200 -	600
The Hector -	100 -	300
The Ascension -	80 -	260

The Susan	80	240
A pinnace	40	100
	500	1500

'As the period of the voyage was calculated at twenty months, the charge for the provisions, it was computed, would amount to 6,600l. 4s. 10d., and the investment, consisting of iron, tin (wrought and unwrought), lead, eighty pieces of broad-cloths of all colours, eighty pieces of Devonshire kersies, and one hundred pieces of Norwich stuffs, with smaller articles, intended for presents to the officers at the ports at which the trade was to be opened, was computed at 4,545l., making together, exclusive of the price of the shipping, and the bullion, 11,145l. 4s. 10d. The charges for the officers commanding these ships, though not stated as a general article of expenditure, may be judged of, from the allowances granted to Captain Davis, appointed to the command of one of them, who was to have 100l, wages, and 200l., on credit, for an adventure; and, as an incitement to activity and zeal in the service, if, on his return, the profit of the voyage should yield two for one, he was to be allowed 500l.; if three for one, 1,000l.; if four for one, 1,500; and if five for one, 2,000l.; or according to the mercantile ideas of the time, his remuneration was to correspond, in its amount, with his exertions and success.'

These were limited and humble operations. They bear but a small proportion to the enterprizes of single merchants at the present day; and the reader would not thank us to carry him a minute and tedious progress, in company with Mr. Bruce, through the most trifling details of this unimportant concern. A well-drawn sketch would have been instructive:—or a distinct relation of the first adventures, including the account both of the nature of the traffic and the amount of the capital employed,—with a similar statement of the principal stages of improvement, and of the circumstances which contributed in an extraordinary manner either to quicken or to retard it,—would have been interesting as well as instructive: but the names and tonnage of the ships, year after year, the minute incidents of the voyages, of the factories, and the counting-houses, become in a short time intolerable to the most unwearying patience.

With the ships which went out in the year 1601, Queen Elizabeth sent a circular letter, addressed to the kings and princes of the places to which they were bound. Mr. Bruce has printed this paper *verbatim*, from a copy preserved in the State-paper-office, and we shall gratify our readers by inserting it entire:

'" *Elizabeth,*

' " *Elizabethe, by the Grace of God, Queene of England, Fraunce, and Ireland, Defender of the Faithe, &c — To the greate and mightie Kinge of ——, or lovinge Brother, greetinge:*

' " Whereas Almightie God, in his infinite wisdome and providence, haith so disposed of his blessings, and of all the good things of this world, which are created and ordeined for the use of man, that howesoever they be brought forthe, and do either originallie growe, and are gathered, or otherwise composed and made, some in one countrie, and some in another, yet they are, by the industrie of man, directed by the hand of God, dispersed and sent out into all the p̃tes of the world, that thereby his wonderful bountie in his creatures may appeare unto all nac̃ons, his divine Ma^{te} havinge so ordeyned, that no one place should enjoy (as the native commodities thereof) all things appteyninge to man's use, but that one countrie should have nede of another, and out of the aboundance of the fruits which some region enjoyeth, that the necessities or wants of another should be supplied, by which meanes, men of severall and farr remote countries have commerce and traffique, one with another, and by their interchange of commodities are linked togeather in amytie and friendshipp:

' " This considerac̃on, most noble Kinge, togeather with the honourable report of yo^{r} Ma^{ie}, for the well enterteyninge of straungers which visitt yo^{r} countrie in love and peace (wth lawful traffique of merchaundizinge) have moved us to geave licence to divers of o^{r} subjects, who have bene stirred upp wth a desire (by a long and daungerous navigac̃on) to finde out and visitt yo^{r} territories and dominions, beinge famous in theise p̃tes of the world, and to offer yo^{u} commerce and traffique, in buyinge and enterchaunginge of commodities wth our people, accordinge to the course of merchaunts; of w^{ch} commerce and interchanging yf yo^{r} Ma^{te} shall accept, and shall receive and entertayne o^{r} merchaunts wth favour, accordinge to that hope w^{ch} hath encouraged them to attempt so long and daungerous a voiadge, you shall finde them a people, in their dealinge and conversac̃on, of that justice and civilitie, that yo^{u} shall not mislike of their repaire to yo^{r} dominions, and uppon further conference and inquisic̃on had wth them, both of theire kindes of merchaundize broughte in their shippes, and of other necessarie commodities w^{ch} o^{r} dom̃inions may afforthe, it may appear to yo^{r} Ma^{ie} that, by their meanes, you may be furnished, in their next retourne into yo^{r} portes, in better sort then you have bene heretofore supplied, either by the Spanyard or Portugale, who, of all other nac̃ons in the p̃rts of Europe, have onlie hetherto frequented yo^{r} countries wth trade of merchaundize, and have bene the onlie impediments, both to our subjects, and diverse other merchaunts in the p̃tes of Europe, that they have not hitherto visited yo^{r} countrie wth trade, whilest the said Portugales pretended themselves to be the soveraigne lordes and princes of all yo^{r} territories, and gave it out that they held yo^{r} nac̃on and people as subjects to them, and, in their stiles and titles, do write themselves kinges of the East-Indies:

'"And yf yo^{r} Ma^{tie} shall, in yo^{r} princelie favour, accept, wth good likinge, this first repaire of our m^{r}chaunt, unto yo^{r} countrie, resortinge thither in peaceable traffique, and shall entertaine this their first voiage, as an introduc̃con to a further continewaunce of friendshipp betweene your Ma^{tie} and us, for commerce and intercourse between yo^{r} subjects and ours, we have geaven order to this, our principall m^{r}chaunt (yf yo^{r} Ma^{tie} shall be pleased therewth) to leave in yo^{r} countrie some such of our said merchaunts as he shall make choice of, to reside in yo^{r} doñinons, under yo^{r} princelie and safe protecc̃on, untill the retourne of another fleete, w^{ch} wee shall send unto you, who may, in the meane tyme, learne the language of yo^{r} countrie, and applie their behavio^{r}, as it may best sorte, to converse wth your Ma^{ties} subjects, to the end that amitie and friendshipp beinge entertayned and begun, the same may the better be continewed, when our people shal be instructed, how to direct themselves accordinge to the fashions of yo^{r} countrie.

'"And becawse, in the considerac̃on of the entetteyninge of amytie and freindshipp, and in the establishinge of an entercourse to be continewed betweene us, ther may be required, on yo^{r} Ma^{ties} behaulfe, such promise or capitulac̃ous to be p̃formed by us, w^{ch} wee cannot, in theise our lr̃es, take knowledge of, wee therefore pray your Ma^{tie} to geave eare therein unto this bearer, and to geave him creditt, in whatsoever he shall promise or undertake in our name, concerninge our amitye and entercourse, w^{ch} promise, wee (for our p̃te), in the word of a Prince, will see p̃formed, and wilbe readie gratefullie to requite anie love, kindnes, or favour, that our said subjects shall receive at your Ma^{ties} handes; prayinge yo^{r} Ma^{tie}, that, for o^{r} better satisfacc̃on of yo^{r} kinde acceptaunce of this our love and amytie offered yo^{r} Highenes, you would, by this bearer, give testymonie thereof, by yo^{r} princelie lr̃es, directed unto us, in w^{ch} wee shall receive very great contentement. And thus," &c.'

When the Company had now existed for nearly twenty years, an account was transmitted to them of their establishments in the East, which has been preserved in their registers, and is presented to us by Mr. Bruce. It is an interesting document.

'*Surat* was the most commodious station in all India, at which, though English goods were not in great request, all the eastern parts of India could be supplied with cloths; but those articles could only be procured by exchanges of China goods, spices, and money.

'At the two factories of *Acheen* and *Tekoo*, on the Island of Sumatra, large quantities of Cambaya and Masulipatam goods might be disposed of, and, in return, gold, camphor, pepper, and benjamin could be obtained.

'*Bantam* was the greatest place of trade in the Indian Seas, where Cambaya and Masulipatam goods, estimated at fifty or sixty thousand rials, were annually imported, and in return, in good years, one hundred and fifty thousand sacks, and in bad years, fixty thousand sacks of pepper could be exported: — the price of pepper, however, had been raised treble, in the last few years, from the competitions in the market, between the English, Dutch, and Chinese.

'*Jaccatra* yielded arrack, rice, and fish, for shipping: but a settlement at that place would be difficult, from the exorbitant sum demanded by the King, for ground on which to build a factory.

'*Jambee* had been recently settled as a factory, at which there was an encreasing demand for Cambaya and Coromandel cloths, and, in return, it would afford about ten thousand sacks of pepper.

'At *Potania*, about ten thousand rials of Surat and Coromandel cloths might be sold; but it furnished few articles of export, and trade was on the decline.

'At *Siam*, if the country were in a state of peace, Coromandel cloth might be sold to the amount of forty or fifty thousand rials per annum; in return, it would yield gold, silver, and deer skins, for the Japan market.

'At *Japan*, English cloth, lead, deer skins, silks, and other goods, would find a considerable market, and, in return, it would furnish silver, copper, and iron; but the English cargoes hitherto sent to this place had been ill assorted, and the trade was on the decline.

'At *Succadania*, diamonds, bezoar stones, and gold, might be obtained, had not this trade been ruined by the ignorance of the first factors.

'At *Banjarmassin*, in the Island of Borneo, diamonds, gold, and bezoar stones, could be procured; but the character of the natives was so treacherous; that it would be expedient to withdraw the factory.

'At *Maccassar*, the best rice in India could be bought, and about forty thousand rials per annum of Cambaya and Coromandel cloths sold; but this place was resorted to by the Portuguese, though abandoned by the Dutch.

'At *Banda*, about forty or fifty thousand rials annually, of Coromandel cloths could be sold; and, in return, about a thousand tons of nutmegs and mace could be purchased, and a still greater quantity, could peace be established between the Europeans trading to it.'

[*To be continued.*]

ART. IV. *Hints on Toleration:* in Five Essays. I. On the Right of Society to investigate the Religious Principles of its Subjects; II. On Specific Limitations to the Extent of an Enlightened Religious Toleration; III. On Eligibility to Offices of Public Trust; IV. On Licensing Persons and Places for the Performance of Divine Worship; V. On the Liberty of the Press. By Philagatharches. 8vo. pp. 365. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

THE perusal of this volume has impressed us with a favourable opinion of the author, as a man who means well, and who wishes to serve the cause of religious liberty. To the majority of his opinions, also, we most cordially assent: but we cannot say "*Amen*" to all his positions, since the principles of Locke, in his Letters on Toleration, are, in our judgment, preferable to those of Philagatharches. As an advocate for Protestant Dissenters, the present writer has exerted himself most strenuously: but in his arguments for a limitation of toleration, so as to exclude the subjects of the Romish Church from the full enjoyment of civil privileges, we discover too much of the old prejudices against Popery. If we admit the doctrine, now recognized by all sensible men, that the magistrate has no lawful dominion over conscience, and that thought is exempted from his control, we must protest against some of the restrictions of toleration which are proposed in the second essay of this volume. We did not expect, moreover, to find a writer, who so stoutly maintains the principles of religious liberty, throwing out any insinuation against the harmless creed of the Quakers; nor, because they assert that the Scriptures, as a rule, are subordinate to the instruction by the Divine Spirit, to see him make it a matter of question 'whether, as the necessary consequence of the above principle, they be not left destitute of any definite, perfect, and immutable rule of conduct, and therefore whether they, who to day only refuse tithes to their vicar, may not to-morrow resist the claims of their sovereign?' p. 49. Equally objectionable are the remarks against Deists; who, it is contended, should not be admitted to give evidence, nor to appear as candidates for civil offices. Locke excludes Atheists, observing that "the taking away of God, though but in thought, dissolves all:" but he does not make the profession of Christianity a necessary condition of toleration, Many Deists, who doubt the divine authority of the Gospel, may be objects of our pity and of our prayers; but cannot deserve civil proscription. They who, on the evidence of the great book of Nature, believe in a God, and in the principles of natural religion or pure Theism, cannot be said to hold 'a profane creed;' nor ought it to be laid down as matter of fact for the direction of civil governors, that, if Deists were 'admitted into offices of trust, neither the monarch nor the people could have any security for the regular and conscientious discharge of their respective duties.' p. 104. We are not ignorant that, in general, religious infidelity originates in vice: but this writer, if he knows the world, needs not to be informed that philosophic Deists are to be found whose conduct is strictly moral, and who, by the principles of mere natural religion, are made as regular and conscientious as most professing Christians are rendered by the faith of the Gospel. When, moreover, we came to the case of the Jew, who, it is hinted, cannot be admitted to offices of trust in this country 'because he hopes to be restored to the possession of Palestine,' we could not restrain a smile; especially as it is added,

> 'It does not appear improbable, that, if Jews were admitted into posts of eminence, their power, influence, wealth, and chicanery, might be directed to that object, with a degree of energy, no less injurious to the state, than inimical to the principles of the Christian faith.'

Most readers will be of a very different opinion. Could the Jews rule in Great Britain, and obtain the sweets and the glory of dominion here, they would not be very desirous of renouncing them for any blessings which they could find in Palestine.

Against the Roman Catholic, this essayist is most severe. His positions are, 'First, that the general spirit of Popery is hostile to the existence of a Protestant state; and, secondly, the sentiments and doctrines of the Catholic faith are such, as must for ever preclude the union of Protestants and Papists in the same community.' The old calumny, that 'the Roman Catholics do not esteem their oaths sacred, and keep no faith with heretics,' is repeated: but it is strange that it should not have occurred to this reflecting writer that, if the Catholics were exonerated from the obligations of an oath, the restrictions of which they complain could be no grievance. Their refusal to take certain oaths, and their renunciation of certain civil privileges rather than make those declarations, clearly prove that they are not so morally debased as their enemies would represent them. They deny the power of the Pope in temporals; and, as the subject at present in agitation respects mere *eligibility*, and the great majority of the kingdom are Protestants, the experiment of complete toleration to the Catholics might be very safely tried. This writer, however, would withhold the boon till the Papists had convened a General Council to cancel the decrees of former Councils; and he exhorts them, instead of urging their claims at this period, to be 'content to wait a more favourable opportunity.'

Though, however, Catholics are under no obligation to Philagatharches for his Hints on Toleration, Protestant Dissenters of all denominations owe him their best thanks, for the zeal with which he has pleaded their cause. The following positions are stated in their favour:

> 'First: their religious sentiments contain nothing hostile to the peace and welfare of the community with which they are connected. Secondly: they are, from sentiment, the warm and steady friends of all the fundamental principles of the British constitution. Thirdly:

they can give all that security, for the discharge of official duties, which can be rendered by Episcopalians.'

The Sacramental Test, as it is called, is censured as the profanation of a most solemn Christian rite; and reasons are given for continuing to Protestant Dissenting ministers, having regular congregations, those exemptions which are granted to them in the Toleration-Act: but the writer does not wish to have such exemptions extended to itinerant teachers.

In the essay on the Liberty of the Press, we meet with many judicious observations; and it is here hinted that this blessing would be secured, and flagrant violations of public and individual liberty more effectually prevented, if, in trials for libel, the judicial act of giving sentence against the delinquent was transferred from the court to the jurors. As the law now stands, the jury have only the power of finding a person *guilty of publishing* a libel, but not that of ascertaining the quantum of punishment to be inflicted for the offence; which is left to the court.

The defect of this performance is that the writer does not sufficiently adhere to his leading proposition, 'that the authority of the magistrate does not extend to principle;' for in the very teeth of this maxim he invites the magistrate to discuss principles, and to limit his toleration to certain opinions according to his views of their dangerous tendency. It does not appear to have occurred to Philagatharches, that, if the supposed 'dangerous tendency' of opinions be a justification of the magistrate in withholding toleration, he may plead his fears of the principles of Protestant Dissenters as well as of those of Catholics; and may reason, after the manner above suggested, against Quakers, that they who refuse to join with him in the established worship will want little persuasion to resist the claims of their sovereign. Religious toleration must be maintained on a broad principle, or not at all. Sedition and rebellion may assume the garb of religion; and whenever this happens, let the sedition and rebellion be punished in spite of the mask which it wears: but let us not suppose that the right, which every man possesses, to follow the dictates of his conscience with regard to religious doctrine and worship, is affected by an accidental, occasional, or partial, misnomer. The civil magistrate should punish all overt acts against the state, but never concern himself with any man's religious creed.

Art. V. *The Formation and Management of Floated-Meadows;* with Corrections of Errors found in the Treatises of Messrs. Davis, Marshall, Boswell, Young and Smith, on the subject of Floating; &c. By the Rev. T. Wright, Rector of Ould, near Northampton. 8vo. pp. 234. 6s. Boards. Scatcherd and Co.

A GENTLEMAN who writes a long treatise to instruct farmers in any department of their art ought not to declaim against *book-farmers;* for if agriculturists did not avail themselves of the knowlege which is offered to them by the press, how could they derive benefit from the hints which *he* has suggested to them? We should have supposed from Mr. Wright's partiality for large farms, under the best state of management, that he would have advised farmers to combine reading with experience, and to make themselves acquainted with the practice of different districts, in order that they might take a leaf out of every brother agriculturist's book. On the evidence before us, he has been a reading farmer; and if he has not been under the necessity of stealing hints, yet, by having had recourse to books, he has been enabled to point out errors. Having 'caused more than four thousand acres to be converted into Floated Meadows,' and having given much attention to the subject both as a practical and as a scientific man, he is well intitled to the notice of the public; and his book contains matter of no little importance to those who are meditating improvements of the kind which he recommends. Alive to the misapprehensions to which the common phrase of *Watering Meadows* has given rise, he has not continued the title of a former treatise *, but has substituted the term *floating* for that of *watering*, as more expressive of the object intended. He adds:

> 'The word *watering*, I fear, has not contributed towards a clear conception of the business, but has given a notion of water used merely for the purpose of wetting the land, for which a small quantity is sufficient; whereas the true practice requires a complete sheet of quick flowing water, at least an inch deep. Indeed, I do not know any one word that will give an adequate idea of the art. In the county of Gloucester and in Wiltshire, it is frequently called *drowning*, or winter drowning; but this runs into the opposite extreme, and denotes too much water in use, and seems to express water kept in a stagnant state, which is very pernicious, if suffered to continue any length of time. Irrigation is the classical and fashionable term used upon this occasion, but is too confined in its sense to give a full notion of the practice.'

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* For our account of Mr. W.'s Treatise on *Watering Meadows*, see M. R. Vol. lxxx. p. 335.

Of the advantages of floating, the author speaks in terms the most encouraging. He represents, as others have done, that

‘ The water of every copious and rapid stream is loaded with manure of the most fertilizing quality; and with this water, it is possible to make land almost as rich as you please, whatever be the nature of the soil, or of the subsoil, even without attending so nicely to system as you necessarily must, when clear spring water is used; and by the contents of this turbid water, an entirely new soil is given to the land in the course of a few years.’—

‘ The primary objects of floating are, I assert, simply these two, to *procure a deposit of manure* from the water used, and by the water at the same time, to *shelter* the land from the severity of winter: and the chief essentials of the art are, that the water shall be made to flow over the surface of the land, *an inch deep*, during winter, and that every part of the works shall be so constructed, as to keep the whole of the water in constant motion. Without attention to these two last requisites, the above objects, to which all others are subservient, cannot be fully obtained; for if the water does not flow an inch deep, you do not use as much water as might be *effectually strained or sifted by the grass*, and of course do not *collect as much mucilage as might be collected*, nor give a complete shelter to the land. If you use much more than an inch depth, and continue it for several weeks, you destroy your best grasses, which will not bear to be entirely under water for many weeks in succession: and if any of the works are cut entirely upon a dead level, a certain part of the water will be kept in a stagnant state, depositing its sediment in the ditches, more than on the surface of the meadow, and soaking into, and chilling the land. If, however, you can so form your meadow as to use the above quantity of water, on the whole, or a part of the land, and each part has a regular descent; the meadow will enjoy every encouragement and protection which grass-land is capable of receiving from the care or culture of man.’

On the subject of winter-floating, Mr. W. remarks:

‘ The art of winter-floating is worthy of no mean commendation, on three especial accounts, or for its three leading or cardinal properties; namely, its affording grass at an unusual season, and when it is most wanted; its certainty in the hay crop; and its requiring no dung. These properties I venture to estimate at 3l. per acre *per ann.* additional value, even upon good land, and much more upon bad land; and this estimate, I presume, will not be thought highly stated by any farmer who has had a full stock of cattle and sheep in a late spring, and has had it in his power to have recourse to a meadow of this description.’

Yet notwithstanding the advantages here so clearly specified, and which are of much moment in the contemplation of every farmer, Mr. W. has cause to lament ‘ that the practice is still very partially adopted,—still very generally misunderstood,—still

— still very strangely misrepresented, — and to be in danger of degenerating into a mere *wetting* of the land.' These are, indeed, good reasons for resuming the discussion; and we hope that, for the benefit of agriculture, our farmers will be *bookish* enough to peruse the present treatise without prejudice. As far as floating is concerned, Mr. W. cannot be averse to the aid of books; for, says he,

> 'I can adduce many instances of gentlemen and farmers having formed excellent meadows, without any knowledge or instruction but what they derived from an attentive perusal of the very concise and imperfect sketch which I gave of this art in my first treatise.'

If the fact be well ascertained that, by properly floating meadows, their annual produce is increased to the full amount of 3l. per acre, the *modus operandi* of the practice is of secondary consideration to the cultivator. However, though Mr. W. wishes to give a philosphical reason for the fertility communicated to land by putting it under a sheet of flowing water an inch deep, talks of water being *effectually strained or sifted by the grass*, and objects to Mr. Marshall's remark that "the warmth communicated by running water to the grass it flows over, is the best account that the most enlightened in the art can give of its good effects," we are inclined to believe that his reputation as a philosopher will not in this instance be advanced. His account at p. 51. does not invalidate Mr. M.'s observation: nor is that gentleman's representation of the warmth of water being the most prevailing agent, contradicted by his subsequent admission that "water communicates real nutriment to the herbage;" since, when the stream by which the floating is performed contains any mucilage or vegetable nutriment, this manure will be deposited, whether 'the grass acts upon it as a fine sieve' or not: but if it were not for the warmth of the water, this manure would not be brought into action, nor would the effects of the soluble carbon contained in river-water become so immediately conspicuous. Mr. W. is probably right in objecting to the deep floating trenches on the ridges, in the Wiltshire plan, as reported by Mr. M.:

> 'These trenches, or floating-gutters, ought never to be made deep, nor ought the drains ever to be made narrow, when their corresponding trenches are large, unless there is fall enough to make them compensate in depth what they are deficient in width; for the water must not be suffered to stagnate.'

We shall not farther interfere with Mr. W.'s review of the essays of the several agricultural professors specified in the title, but proceed briefly to notice his *Method of forming a Floating Meadow*; we say *briefly*, because, without the plates, we cannot enter into an ample detail. In this part of the work, the directions are given with abundant minuteness, aided by a full description of each plate; to which are added rules for the management of Floated Meadows through every month of the year. It must suffice for us to transcribe Mr. W.'s general hints;

'Before I begin to point out the particular mode of forming a floated meadow, such questions as the following are necessary to be proposed:—Will the stream of water to be employed in floating, admit of a temporary wear or dam across it? Can you dam up, and raise the water high enough to flow over the surface of your land without flooding and injuring your neighbour's adjoining land? Or, is your water already high enough, without a wear; or can you make it so, by taking it out of the stream higher up, and by the conductor, keeping it up nearly to its level, till it enters the meadow? And can you draw the water off your meadow as quick as it is brought on? If these questions suggest no insuperable difficulty, but can freely be answered in the affirmative, you may proceed according to the following directions:

'In the first place, when the descent is not sufficiently great to be determined by the eye, take an accurate level of the ground intended for floating, and compare the highest part of it with the height of the stream of water to be used. Ascertain how many inches fall there are, from the surface of the water, to the highest part of the land: if the highest part of the land be adjoining to the stream, the process is easy; but if, as it often happens, it be distant from (or the farthest part from) the stream, the execution becomes more difficult; as it is necessary that the sides of the ditch, which conveys the water for distribution, should be raised all that distance, and kept high enough to carry the water to the aforesaid highest part. In this case, cut, in as direct a line as circumstances will allow, a wide ditch, or master-feeder, keeping up its banks, not upon a dead level, but with a gradual descent from beginning to end. Supposing, for instance, the highest part of the meadow to be one hundred yards distant from the stream, and you have five inches fall in that distance, you are to give to the whole length an equal degree of descent, that is, to each twenty yards, one inch fall, and then every drop of water will be kept in equable and constant motion.

'Sometimes the land has a very uneven surface, and there are two or more parts of it considerably higher than the rest; it will then be necessary to give to each higher part its respective feeder. It will be found, that one feeder made diagonally, and two others in different directions, will, in general, with the assistance of the smaller works, (whatever be the form or situation of the meadow,) be competent to effect a regular distribution of the water over the whole surface of the land.

'The width of each feeder depends upon the number and length of the smaller ditches, or floating gutters, which it is to supply with water.'

We may venture to recommend this treatise as an useful book on the subject to which it relates.

VI. *Dramatic and Narrative Poems.* By John Joshua, Earl
Carysfort, K.P. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Mackinlay.
10.

always gives us pleasure to have an opportunity of wel-
oming a noble author with merited approbation. The pro-
ions before us are evidently the fruit of a cultivated mind
a correct taste, and they display no inconsiderable stores
oetical expression: but the interest excited by the two
nes will be very different in degree, if our judgment can
ny criterion of that which the public will entertain. Dra-
c poems on the story of Caius Gracchus, on that of Mith-
es, on the Fall of Carthage, and on the sacrifice of Polyx-
which occupy the first of these volumes, will probably
attract any very general attention; and indeed the author
elf observes that 'the heroic tales of classical antiquity
lost their currency.' It is but too true that the disposition of
public seems to be to welcome the revived amusements of
nursery; and fairy tales, and tales of chivalry and ro-
ce, have now more than a *reasonable* chance of success.
ies, also, extracted from our own early history, are tole-
y sure of meeting with a sufficient large portion of anti-
rian readers to recompense their authors. The second
ime of Lord Carysfort's Poems, therefore, will be taken
n the shelf much more frequently than the first; and we
happy, as we premised, to be able to recommend to the
rs of poetry a speedy acquaintance with this publication.

The Revenge of Guendolen' stands at the head of the
rative Poems. Guendolen was the wife of Locrine, the
of Brutus, who first colonized Britain!!! 'The great
ebrity of the Romans,' as Lord C. observes, 'accounts for
propensity of other nations to draw their original from the
ie source; and the fables of Geoffrey of Monmouth found
easy reception in this island, as they gratified the vanity,
l agreed with the reigning prejudices of the nation. Milton,
ose extensive learning and penetrating criticism could have
ected the imposture, has given new importance to the le-
ids of Brutus and his successors, by repeating them in the
t book of his History of England, for the sake, as he says,
our poets and rhetoricians. The apotheosis of Sabra, the
ighter of Locrine and Estrildis, is entirely of his invention,
l makes a principal ornament of the Mask of Comus.'

Estrildis, we should inform our readers, was a beautiful cap-
e, taken by Locrine in his wars with Humber, king of the
ins. The faithless conqueror, in order to indulge his pas-
n for this "*Belle Sauvage*," divorces Guendolen, the daugh-

ter of the great Corineus, king of Cornwall, and one of the Trojan-Roman followers of the Arch-Colonist Brutus; whom he (Corineus) largely assisted in expelling the aboriginal giants who inhabited Britain!—The poem commences with the preparations of Guendolen to revenge this atrocious injury and insult. She brings a stout army of good Cornish men and true, from sundry places in Cornwall, of whose antient names we are duly informed; and on the very borders of Loëgria Proper, (the allotted dominion of Locrine, when Albanact and Camber, his brethren, received Albania and Cambria, by the will of their father Brutus,) the men of Belerium, of Ocrinum, and proud Pendennis, advance to fierce encounter with the 'marshall'd pow'rs' of Capis, Æneus, and Bleduno, &c. &c.; the more loyal Trojans who obey Locrine. The adultery of Locrine is punished by his defeat and death: but Estrildis, his innocent and not unamiable wife or concubine, just at the moment of her threatened execution, throws herself into the Severn;—or rather into the stream of which her daughter Sabra became the Goddess on the same occasion. This unfortunate, yet fortunate, maiden had been precipitated by the ministers of Guendolen's revenge into the flood; where, (wonderful to relate!)

> —— 'The yielding surface of the Lake
> Divides, and all the train of Sister Nymphs,
> Nereids and Naiads, from their coral beds
> And sparry grots, their shining tresses rear;
> In their soft arms the falling Maid receive
> And swiftly bear from sight. The wreathed shell
> Of Triton sounds meanwhile, and tells th' approach
> Of the Sea-Gods: Ocean, the hoary sire;
> Majestic Tethys; and the dreaded pow'r
> Who wields the earth-shaking trident; Nereus old;
> Doris, and Amphitrite; and beloved
> Of thundering Jove, the silver-footed dame;
> And every God, and every Nymph, that rules
> The fountains, and the rivers of the isle;
> Nor absent was the Queen of soft desires,
> Sprung from the waves, delight of earth and heaven,
> Fair Aphrodite.'——

We do not approve of this versified extract from the Pantheon. The Gods and Goddesses of classical antiquity are yet staler than its heroes and heroines. We are indeed glad to see the noble author rightly distinguishing the venerable Tethys from her grand-daughter Thetis; a distinction not *accurately* made by some mythologists: but, waiving this, we must protest against any farther school-boy references to the heathen divinities in English verse. We are better pleased in making another

ıother extract from the same poem ; and we must specify
ıe description of the 'dreadful Sisters, the chusers of the
lain,' introduced in the battle, with other northern deities, as
very poetical passage. We also entirely agree with Lord
arysfort in considering the stores of the Edda as by no means
thausted. Whether a poet should take his machinery from
ıat source, and combine it with the attractive fable sug-
ested by Gibbon, — namely, that extraordinary foundation of
system of religion and polity in Scandinavia, which seemed
estined to overthrow the Roman empire ; — or whether he
ıould follow one of the plans sketched by Dryden in the de-
ication of his Juvenal, and should introduce the guardian
ıgels of empires in an English story ; — whichsoever of these
esigns might be pursued by a writer gifted with genius, learn-
ıg, and judgment, we are of opinion that a much nobler epic
əem might even now appear than any (with one exception *)
ıat has yet adorned our language. We cannot, however,
oincide with Lord Carysfort in thinking 'that a noble work
ıay hereafter be raised on the fables and allegories of Hin-
ostan ;' since the probability, we apprehend, is strongly against
ıy such success of an author who should adopt the inconceiv-
bly wild and confused (not to say, insane) mythology of
ıe Hindus. The imagination of the Arabians and Persians,
ıring and creative as it has been, has yet dreamed intelligible
reams : — but in what account which we have hitherto read of
e religious fables of their remoter Asiatic brethren, has a
y of amusing invention beamed amid the clouds of impos-
le prodigies ? To this subject, we shall have better oppor-
ıities of recurring : but at present we must attend on Estril-
; who, in the absence of Locrine, is described as reposing
odorous shades,' and seeking consolation in the 'celestial
' which are sung by her attendants :

'To this fair troop, in mute attention rapt,
Estrildis listen'd, for their theme was love.
They sung how first the sweetly-painful fires,
Steal unsuspected to the virgin's heart :
Then her soft breast what strange emotions heave !
What burning blushes tinge her glowing cheek !
She sighs, but yet she knows not why she sighs ;
She blushes, yet unconscious of the flame.
Ah, simple maid ! too well those eyes declare
Whence spring thy blushes, whence thy sighs arise ;
Those eyes which sparkle when the youth appears,
Those eyes suffus'd with tears when he retires.

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e might, perhaps, make no exception ; sheltering ourselves
ıe celebrated play of words concerning *Paradise Lost.*

What anguish now her gentle bosom rends;
What doubts, what fears, her lab'ring mind perplex!
But see! the loves in flow'ry fetters lead
The youth enamour'd to the secret bow'r.
Now the coy maid with feign'd resentment burns,
Reproves his rashness, and rejects his suit;
But soon the stolen glance, the frequent sigh,
The glowing cheek, the fault'ring voice betray
The soft deceit, the mutual flame reveal.
The queen delighted hears, the grateful song
Wakes sweet remembrance. Fancy gaily paints
Scenes of past joys, and every joy renews.
In plaintive notes the nymphs resume the strain,
In plaintive notes; but still the theme was love.
They sung the poor, forsaken maid, who weeps
Her charms despis'd, her easy faith betray'd.
Nor swells her bosom with a lighter grief,
Who mourns the absence of the youth she loves,
Torn from her arms to brave the stormy main,
Or nobly toiling in the field of fame;
But never, never to return again.
Estrildis now her soul to grief resigns,
While in her mind distracting fears arise;
Fast flow her tears, quick pants her throbbing breast,
Th' attentive virgins change their artful song,
And now no more the nymph in absence mourns;
The youth returns, his toils and perils o'er,
The youth returns, with wreaths of conquest crown'd.
Oh joy unhop'd! oh bliss beyond compare!
Oh, pangs of absence, amply now repaid!
Nor yet had ceas'd the strain; but now the queen
Saw one that press'd the plain with hasty step;
His head the helmet bore, his hand the spear.
Sudden with beating heart she ran, she flew;
"And comes my lord?" with eager voice she cried.'

After having paid this attention to the noble Earl's poem in blank verse, we have not the room which we could wish for any very ample specimens of his rhymes: — but we must recommend to all lovers of romance his fairy tale 'the Bower of Melissa,' in which he has not only imitated the versification but the narrative style of Dryden with a creditable degree of success. We received much entertainment from the perusal of this story, and were sorry to arrive at its conclusion; which is no trifling test, we can assure our readers, of the sincerity of critical commendation, especially when we moreover inform them that the tale consists of six cantos. We select the opening of the first canto, for a proof of the justice of our opinion respecting Lord Carysfort's happy imitation of his well-chosen model, the father of English rhyme:

'Twas when the Zephyr's breath had wak'd the flow'rs,
And May with blossoms deck'd her vernal bow'rs,
Two Knights with various talk beguil'd the way,
Which near the stream and through the forest lay.
Sons of one sire, nor more by blood allied
Than by the bands of friendship closely tied,
In social arms the noble pair proceeds
To purchase glory by adventurous deeds:
Yet different passions each brave bosom fir'd,
By honour one, as one by love inspir'd.'—

We decline any analysis of the contents of this fanciful fable. Such avowed extravagancies of the imagination are beyond the pale of our severer jurisdiction; and we are satisfied if we are amused by poetry that does not aim at higher purposes. The noble author's design indeed is uniformly moral; and the present volumes may throughout be considered as deserving a place in the chastest library.

We could extract from 'the Bower of Melissa' many good descriptions of country scenery, conveyed in very expressive language and perfectly harmonious verse;—we could also prove, by several other passages in this poem, that the author is capable of touching the tenderer affections, and that he sometimes strikes the harp with a vigorous hand: — but our limits forbid; and we must be contented with offering this general praise, and some few particular strictures on an occasional carelessness of composition which a writer, who is on the whole so correct, would do well to avoid. Such negligence should be left to those bolder violators of every rule of taste, whose irregularities may by themselves and their admirers be termed the liberties of genius: but whose genius must, we think, be mortified by reflecting that the clemency of criticism spares much where it has much to admire. We shall suggest our censures without arrangement, since they are chiefly verbal, and refer to very different parts of the poem.

Such words as 'beam, flame,' '*seen, scene*,' 'stream, gleam,' page 165, are too similar in sound for immediately successive rhymes. Those in Italics are otherwise inadmissible.

——— 'The blissful grove,
'The seat of peace, and innocence, and love,— (p.171.)

are very namby-pamby phrases, indeed:

"Lord Fanny spins a thousand such a day:"

but Lord Carysfort is greatly above such extempore imbecility when he exerts any degree of thought.—'Torments,' and 'laments,' (p.175.) are terminations not alike, but the same;—as are 'reserved,' and 'observed' (p. 209.)

'Must be the subject of a future song' (p. 188.)

is a cutting of pure prose, ten feet in length.— 'Obscene' and 'seen' (p. 239.) are again too homotonous.

'Six arms, by *threes* on either side array'd,' (p. 263.)

is as familiar in expression as it is monstrous in conception: these, however, are not numerous blemishes in several thousand lines.

The last poem is intitled 'the Statues,' or 'the story of Zeynu 'Lasnâm.'

> 'The Arabic words,' says Lord C. 'signify the ornament of Statues; and the proper figure of the words is Zeynu al Asnaum. *U*, or *oo*, is the termination of the noun; *al* is the article; but the Arabians, contrary to the practice of the European nations, make the elision of the vowel of the second word, and incorporate, as it were, the second word with the first; so that the strict pronunciation is Zeynul Asnaum. The long vowel in the concluding syllable of Asnaum denotes the plural number; according to the analogy of the Arabian language, what we call Abdallah should be Abdoo'llah, and it is always so pronounced by the orientals.'

Though we have thus introduced our readers to the etymology of the principal character's name, we shall not present them with any extracts from this ingenious story: but we think that they will not be unpleasingly reminded, by its perusal, of their old acquaintances, "The Tales of the Genii," and "The Arabian Nights' Entertainments."

We have already expressed an opinion concerning the Dramatic Poems in the first volume, that the noble author is not likely to excite attention to that portion of his labours, but we by no means extend that opinion beyond the choice of classical subjects for the Drama, which has here been made. The choice is injudicious because it is unpopular, at present: but the execution of his design reflects honour on the talents of Lord Carysfort. We see in these Dramas the good effects of a studious attention to the antient models; not only in purifying the taste and in polishing the style of the writer, but in giving noble and high-toned sentiments to the man. The dignified virtues of the best Grecian and Roman characters, immortalized as they are by their compatriot historians and poets, cannot fail of infusing a liberal and lofty feeling into the bosom of youth; and were this the only effect of a classical education, it would be enough to rescue it from the low cavils of its ignorant opponents: but when, to these graver advantages, we add that elegance of thought and expression which can only be derived from this invaluable source of improvement, what philosophical or virtuous mind would omit any fair occasion of inculcating with all its force the necessity of early application to the learned languages?

From the Tragedy of Caius Gracchus, we shall make an extract which appears to us to be no inapposite illustration of the preceding remarks. — The speaker is Cornelia, "the Mother of the Gracchi."

——— ——— 'Oh by what mark
Shall virtue be distinguish'd? Does renown
Attend her flight, the loud applause of nations?
Successful crimes, and splendid vices share it.
Is it success? 'Tis won by coward policy,
And dark intrigue, and hardy violence.
Virtue then loveliest seems when most oppress'd.
Is it the favour of th' immortal Gods?
And do they bear the sceptre of the world
To crush with heavy and repeated blows
What most they love? Is virtue then a name,
An empty sound, a vain and baseless vision?
Is that an empty name, a baseless nothing,
Which spurns the lot of vile mortality,
And emulates the Gods? Say rather, pomp,
And wealth, and greatness, whose unstable fabric
Hangs upon circumstance, and with a breath
Dissolves, say these which virtue scorns are nothing.
Adversity, and power, o'er which she triumphs,
Mocking their feeble efforts, these are nothing.
Virtue deriv'd from heaven, to heaven aspires,
Lives by herself, and treads on time and fate.
It is a portion of æthereal flame,
Which proves us issued from th' immortal Gods,
With demi-gods, and heroes fam'd of old,
Heirs of their bliss, and partners of their sway.'

We could point out several feeble and some faulty passages in this play. For instance, when Gracchus is complimented by one of his friends in the following manly strains,

'Hail, great assertor of thy country's cause!
Hail, virtuous Roman, by the gods approv'd!
Methinks, the spirits of our great forefathers
Surround thy graceful form in splendid ranks,
And on thy brow display the bright effulgence
Of all their patriot virtues,'—

the reply of Gracchus begins with a simile, out of place, and out of character;

——— 'Valiant friends,
To me more sweet than morning's balmy gale,
Breathing o'er flow'rs, to him who newly rais'd
From sickness now first gazes on the sky,
My grateful country's praise.'—

Many of the speeches are too long; and this, if offensive in soliloquy, is an unpardonable error in dialogue. On the whole, however, we think that this play is the best of the four. Monimia, (the wife of Mithridates,) as the second is called, is not indeed an uninteresting tragedy; and in our opinion the author is successful in his vindication of the character of his heroine. 'The Fall of Carthage,' a sort of dramatic masque, has four allegorical mutes in it; and, moreover, the alternate songs of a chorus and semi-chorus, that musical mob of confidants. Carthage was burnt: but we cannot help hinting that the escape of this drama from a similar fate has falsified the adage, "*Omne per ignem excoquitur vitium.*"—Not that we mean to deny the possibility of finding several luminous spots in this poem; and more especially in its successor, Polyxena, which finishes the volume. The characters in this last drama are well drawn and supported, particularly that of Cassandra.

If this noble Earl should appear again before the public, (and we need not express our wishes on the subject,) let us exhort him to chuse more modern stories for his dramatic plots; or, if he will still farther be guided by our opinion, to cultivate his talents for poetical narrative, in preference to any other mode of composition.

Art. VII. *Bidcombe Hill;* with other Rural Poems. By the Reverend Francis Skurray, A. M. Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. (with 3 Plates.) Miller.

If it ever were allowable to form a conjecture as to the disposition of an author from his book, we should pronounce a sentence highly in favour of the good and gentle feelings of this writer; who seems, as far as we may rely on his own modest record of his habits, (and we are greatly disposed to believe it,) to be well calculated for his office of a parish-priest. When we have made this due acknowlegement, it is with pain that we offer him our advice not to publish any future attempts in verse: for although we can readily conceive that the indulgence of partia friends has expressed even flattering sentiments of approbation o the perusal of this volume in manuscript, we are compelled b the stern claims of our duty to declare, that we have discovere in the work no sufficient symptoms of poetical talent to warr the dangerous experiment of publication. That this senten may not appear unjust, nor even harsh, we shall point o several manifest instances of bad taste and faulty expressio at the same time selecting a specimen of the best execut passages: which we fear will sanction our opinion that t poetry of an apparently amiable man (however it may h pleas pleased, and may continue to please his friends,) does not in this case deserve the notoriety of the press.

Descriptive blank-verse should be very good in order to command attention. Even the father of the species of local poem, Denham, with all the charms of rhyme, does not uniformly amuse us in our short journey over Cooper's hill. Of the guide to Bidcombe Hill*, we fear that we must say considerably less. That a writer, who is about to sing the beauties of a *hill*, should begin by telling us that he does not aspire to climb the *hill* of Parnassus,

> 'Content to hover round the classic *base*,
> Or skim the level of the *plain* below,'

is perhaps rather more diffident than judicious: but the arrangement of his subject is, we think, peculiarly unfortunate. The shepherds of Arcadia, and the natural mixture of astronomical studies with the occupations of the pastoral life, are panegyrized at page 8:—the Jewish patriarchs, and the great shepherd of the Jews, are next celebrated;—and the author then proceeds;

> —'When Heaven's messengers came down on earth,
> To bring glad tidings of the greatest joy,
> To shepherds first the welcome news was told.
> Thus Fancy loves to rove midst tales of yore,
> To view the picture of the *Golden Age*,
> And muse on times — *Oh! when will they return?*'

Surely the *Golden Age* should have been dismissed, before an event which happened in the reign of Augustus was recorded by the poet!

The following lines (page 12.) have but too many parallels in prosaic familiarity of expression:

> 'Upon the day when we commemorate
> Our Saviour's entry to Jerusalem,' &c.

This is really degrading poetry to conversation; and it certainly would be more easy to many speakers, than agreeable to most hearers, to converse for hours in such blank verse as this.

Bad taste again appears in the simile suggested, though not expressed, at page 14, where the English prisoners in France are represented as hanging their harps

> 'Upon the branches of the willows grey,
> Which o'er the Meuse's silver current nod.'

This scene on the banks of the Meuse recalls the "waters of Babylon" in a manner which is very *mal-à-propos*; while by the late "Picture of Verdun," drawn by one of the *Détenus*, we are rather reminded of horse-racing than of harping on the shores of the modern Euphrates. We would unwillingly smile on so painful a subject, but the author is answerable for the offence.

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* Near Longleat, Wilts.

The willow, an unlucky tree for the present poet, is thus described by him at page 30. in the story of a female maniac:

' The weeping willow (emblem of her fate)
Shall to the breezes sigh, and droop its head
In elegant simplicity of grief,
Over the sod, where lies the suicide.'

We have selected this passage very impartially, for we know a class of readers to whom the line in Italics will appear beautiful.

On Lord Nelson's reception at Fonthill, we are *historically* informed (page 39.) that

' To greet the presence of the honour'd guest
The board was decked with elegance and art.'

At page 51. we have a curious apostrophe to a common subject of lamentation:

' O cruel war! the rich man's terror, *and*
The poor man's curse——.'

We do not recollect an apposite instance of the final ' and' more happily introduced. The exemplification in the old song is much inferior:

" She mixes with her lily hand
A luscious cup of cyder and—"

In rather a pleasing description of his cottage, with which the poem concludes, the author tells us that

' When the earth trembles on its tottering base,
Shook by the dread artillery of heaven,
Guarded from harm I watch the lightnings play
Their *harmless gambols* o'er my lowly shed.'

If the spectator was ' guarded from harm,' the lightnings may be said (without any great audacity of metaphor) to be harmless as to him: — but the ' *gambols of lightnings!*' They remind us woefully of the characters in the Rehearsal;

" I'm the *brisk* lightning"! " The bold thunder, I!"

Just before this passage, the author had intimated,

' When my heart bleeds, home to my cot I fly,
And 'mid the quiet of its peaceful scenes,
Forgive unkindness, and forget its wrongs.'

We trust that Mr. Skurray has neither wrongs nor unkindness at our hands to forgive and to forget. We intend nothing but a salutary warning to him and to others, who would rush headlong into the gulph of the press, that the first false step may be recovered, although a repetition of error must almost certainly be fatal. We were pleased on a former occasion to be able to speak favourably of a short composition by this writer, in the department of his profession; and we decidedly would advise him for the future to confine his public efforts to prose.

Although the title of 'Bidcombe Hill' be faithfully preserved at the top of every page, half of the volume consists of miscellaneous poems. The first is an 'Invitation to Fishing;' and such an 'Invitation' never fails to recall to our minds the far famed "Invitation" in the Rolliad:

> "Worthy Sir Joe! we all are wishing
> For you to go a White-bait-fishing:"

though the present 'Invitation' is given to 'an amiable young woman.' — We cannot approve of the style of the address.

> 'When scorch'd by the rays of the vertical sun,'

we here again thought of a popular fishing stanza:

> "The sun's perpendicular height
> Had illumin'd the depth of the sea,
> And the fishes," &c. &c.

but Mr. Skurray thus expresses himself:

> 'When scorch'd by the rays of the vertical sun,
> (A shelter from heat) we'll hastily run,
> To the grot's sequester'd retreat,'

We scarcely know which to censure most, the improper collocation of the words, or the limping aukwardness of the measure, in these unfortunate lines: — but what shall we say to the following? — The lady is supposed to be touched with compassion for the fish which her 'Inviter' has caught:

> 'Perhaps, both unheard and unseen, you will go,
> And, seizing the captives, you'll instantly throw
> *Them* back in the water again.'

We will say no more in the language of unmixed censure, but will extract some of the most favourable specimens of poetry which we can find in this prettily printed and not inelegantly *pictured* little book, and with the salutary caution above expressed we shall bid adieu to the author.

We think that the last poem in the volume is one of the best. It is written on the old subject of a country-churchyard, but it expresses common thoughts not unpleasingly, and is free from the folly of avoiding imitation by laboured and unnatural novelty. The three subjoined stanzas will be read with satisfaction, though it would be easy to specify several of their faults:

> 'Under yon tufted hillock's hallow'd mould
> In quiet silence sleeps the prattling boy:
> Clos'd are thine eyes, thy little heart is cold,
> Thy mother's darling, and thy father's joy!
>
> 'The modest flow'ret open'd to the sun,
> Shew'd its faint blush, and sipp'd the sparkling dew:
> Its colour faded, and its tints were gone,
> Whilst yet it blossom'd in the parents' view.
>
> 'The father's frantic bosom knows no rest;
> Through the long night the childless mother weeps:
> Cease, parents, cease to beat the tortur'd breast,
> The lovely Edward is not dead, but sleeps!'

We transcribe also a passage full of good sentiments from the principal poem, Bidcombe Hill; and, on the whole, these lines are well expressed:

> 'Then to the vale beneath I cast my eyes,
> Where 'mid thick groves, and glittering waterfalls,
> The lordly mansion rises to my sight,
> Kindling no thoughts but those of gratitude.
> When from my door the mendicant departs
> Content and happy with some pittance given,
> The heartfelt blessings which he leaves behind
> Shall light on him who bade my cottage smile,
> Who blest my labours, and enlarged my store.'

Reference, we suppose, is here made to the Marquis of Bath, whose neighbouring seat of Longleat is pleasingly represented in one of the engravings in this volume; and whose kindness to Mr. Skurray is also thus recorded in a note:

> 'The Parsonage-House at Horningsham was rebuilt for the author's reception, and all the timber was gratuitously contributed. His residence amid salubrious air and picturesque scenery restored him to health, and first disposed him to seek amusement in poetical delineation.'

Besides occasional notes of this kind, at the foot of the page, longer illustrative notes are added at the end of the volume.

Art. VIII. *An Inquiry into the Causes of the present high Price of Gold Bullion in England, and its Connection with the State of Foreign Exchanges;* with Observations on the Report of the Bullion-Committee. In a Series of Letters addressed to Thomas Thompson, Esq. M. P., one of the Members of the Bullion-Committee. By John Hill. 8vo. pp. 152. 5s. Longman and Co. 1810.

Art. IX. *Considerations on Commerce, Bullion and Coin, Circulation and Exchanges;* with a view to our present Circumstances. By George Chalmers, F. R. S. S.A., Author of "the Comparative Strength of Great Britain," &c. 8vo. pp. 237. 6s. 6d. Stockdale, jun. 1811.

Art. X. *Observations on the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons,* appointed to inquire into the high Price of Gold Bullion, &c. &c.; together with some Remarks on the Work of Mr. Blake on the Principles of Exchange. By Edward Thornton, Esq., late his Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the King of Sweden. 8vo. pp. 160. 5s. 6d. Stockdale. 1811.

Art. XI. *Observations on the Fallacy of the supposed Depreciation of the Paper-Currency of the Kingdom;* with Reasons for dissenting from the Report of the Bullion-Committee. By Francis Perceval Eliot, Esq. 8vo. pp. 171. 5s. 6d. Stockdale, jun. 1811.

Art. XII. *Observations on the Depreciation of Money, and the State of our Currency.* With sundry relative Tables. By Robert Wilson, Esq., Accountant in Edinburgh, one of the Directors of the Bank of Scotland, &c. 8vo. pp. 79. 3s. 6d. Anderson, Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London.

The Report of the Bullion-Committee seems to have suffered as yet no suspension of its productive powers, and bids fair to be not less prolific of pamphlets than its memorable precursor, the Bank-Restriction-Bill. Since the late increase of these performances, it deserves remark that the balance, in point of number, has changed sides, and is now in favour of the Bank, the Bullion-Report having called forth assailants of all descriptions. Among such a variety of tracts, several must, in course, be possessed of slender claims to attention: but, since the subject is of very great importance, we have prescribed it to ourselves, as a rule, to insert in our pages a notice of every work on it which may be offered to the public, until the doubts of the country shall be set at rest by the adoption of some specific measure on the part of the Legislature. Our own sentiments being already before our readers, the present article shall be chiefly appropriated to an exposition of the opinions of others; but no one of the productions, which we are now about to review, exhibits a connected system, and therefore our criticism must consist, in a great measure, of a series of observations on detached passages. Such insulated remarks cannot possess for our readers the interest of a continued disquisition; and it is fair to warn them that the perusal of a critical comment on these publications is to be regarded more as a task than a pleasure; — a task, however, to the performance of which they must find themselves stimulated by the expectation of the approaching discussion in parliament.

(I.) Of the pamphlets in the prefixed list, that of Mr. Hill, though not the most bulky, will be found, by the aid of close printing, to be one of the longest; and indeed it ranks among the longest of the whole number of those which we have perused on the present question, the author being in no degree gifted with that faculty of condensation which we mentioned, in a late Number, as so precious a talent to those who venture to write on the uninviting subject of Banks and Bullion. We must accuse him also of another kind of literary delinquency, which is very common among writers of the present day, but very unfortunate for their readers; viz. an eagerness to circulate their own conceptions, without investigating the previous labours of others. He has written at great length on international exchange, without appearing to have ever looked into Mr. Blake's valuable treatise on that subject; and we must say, generally, that in the course of a very patient perusal of this production, we have been able to trace scarcely any reference to former works, with the single exception of Macpherson's Annals of Commerce. Mr. Hill's claim to notice rests therefore much more on the candour and impartiality, than on the novelty or even the accuracy of his reasoning. He dates his letters from Cottingham, near Hull, and begins by remarking that the chief use of the precious metals is not for internal circulation, but to liquidate balances between one nation and another. He then divides the situation of a country, with respect to commercial intercourse with its neighbours, into three stages, the stationary, the improving, and the declining; adding, for our comfort, that the last is our present condition. In the same spirit of supposition and fanciful distinction, he proceeds to separate our commercial history into three æras. The first, comprehending our mercantile transactions from the time of the Romans till the year 1694, he terms ‘ the state of commercial infancy;’ comprizing, under this singular epithet, a period of sixteen centuries, — the longest, by much, we believe, of all the infancies on record. He is induced to fix on 1694 as an epoch, because the Bank of England was established in that year, and continued its progress, with uninterrupted regularity, till the Suspension of 1797. This happy period of one hundred and three years, Mr. Hill terms (secondly) 'the state of our commercial maturity;' and thirdly, to the years which have since intervened, he gives the ominous title of the age of 'commercial decline.' From the last of these designations, the reader might be induced to consider Mr. Hill as an advocate for the resumption of cash-payments: but a farther perusal of the tract will lead to considerable qualifications of this opinion. He differs in many points from the Report of the Bullion-Committee; and he discovers, as he advances, a greater knowlege of the subject than was to be expected from his whimsical outset. He ascribes our present embarrassments not to an excess of paper, but to a scarcity of bullion, consequent on a long continuance of an unfavourable balance of payments with other countries. The increase which has taken place in our paper-currency, since 1797, he regards as only commensurate with the progressive advance of our population and productive industry, and as having been required by the surprizing augmentation of our taxes. It is too common an error, he observes, to consider our paper-currency in its present state as easily capable of over-issue; and he thinks that, on the contrary, the checks which still remain, as well on the Bank of England as on the country-banks, are of a more substantial character than the public are apt to imagine. The Bank of England has been compared to a mine: but the analogy, Mr. Hill remarks, will not hold, the metallic product possessing an intrinsic value, and, when once issued, admitting of no recall.

These observations appear to deserve attention: but so mixed is the character of this performance, that we meet with serious errors in its most promising parts. For instance, Mr. Hill goes the length of maintaining (p. 77.) that the tendency of an over-issue of paper-currency is not to raise but to cheapen commodities. Another of his arguments, equally flattering, but alas! equally delusive, is that the depreciation of our currency has by no means been productive of the mischiefs ascribed to it. We may safely conclude, from this cool mode of reasoning, that the author does not belong to the ill-starred class of annuitants.—Connected with this extraordinary position, and a worthy companion to it, is Mr. Hill's declaration that it is highly improper to attempt *keeping money at a fixed value* by act of Parliament. Such a measure has never been proposed either by the Bullion-Committee or by any other set of men; and it would be an undertaking of no small difficulty to try to assign a *ne plus ultra* to that progressive reduction which, during our days at least, has been found irresistible. All that

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Committee appear to have paid
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compelled to resume its payments
present time, they have given th
the means by which the Director
coolly and deliberately inform us
ant business which the Committ
the Directors themselves.—

‘ The Report on this head app
of Physicians, who being called t
should very gravely express their
would be most conducive to his h
and family of their patient the tas
should be enabled to walk ; believ
cretion, experience, and integrity
“ might safely instrust the charg
physicians “ had in their wisdom d
effected.”

The comparison here introdu
touches, with which the reader
wish to have his attention invig
nous disquisition relieved.

A principal fault of this wor
for conjectural estimates ; of wh
is afforded by Mr. Hill’s fourt
is to calculate the sum of coin
The method which he takes to
fact may have been suggested
efficacy seems not a little do
little else

The ninth and last letter consists of animadversions on specific points of the Report of the Bullion-Committee. In some respects, Mr. Hill appears to misapprehend the arguments of the Committee; in others, he has understood them rightly, and has combated them with considerable force. His grand objection to the Report is the same which has occurred to us; namely, that the Committee have been too much occupied with an inquiry into the theory of money, and too little with the actual circumstances which have produced our present financial malady.

Having thus considered, separately, several of the passages of Mr. Hill's publication, we shall endeavour to give a brief outline of its general tendency. After he has laid down the rule that the stock of specie in a country depends on the balance of its foreign receipts and payments, he ascribes our present situation, not to over-issue, but to the circumstance of that balance having become adverse to us; and the origin of this unfavourable change he attributes to the facilities afforded by a paper-currency, in carrying to excess both our mercantile imports and the foreign expenditure of our Government. In the latter point, most people will be disposed to agree with him: but the former is more doubtful, and, at all events, is one of those evils which speedily cure themselves. We assent to his argument, however, as far as it regards the export of specie for the purchase of corn in the years 1800 and 1801, and even in 1809. — Of his succeeding statements, the principal are that the expectation of benefit from the resumption of cash-payments is greatly over-rated by the Bullion-Committee; while, on the other hand, the difficulty of accomplishing that measure is much greater than they are disposed to admit.

In regard to Mr. Hill's pretensions as a writer, it seems to us that, had he accustomed himself to think more closely before he committed his conclusions to paper, and had he curtailed his 'Inquiry' to half its size, he might have flattered himself with holding a place among the successful expositors of our pecuniary difficulties: but, in the present state of his publication, he must be prepared to hear that many who open his pamphlet will decline the task of travelling through it, and will be satisfied with confining their researches to detached passages pointed out by the table of contents. Were it his lot to know the angry mood into which verbosity and repetition are apt to throw the harrassed faculties of Reviewers, he would not fail to congratulate himself whenever he experienced lenient treatment at their hands.

(II.) Mr. Chalmers's 'Considerations' form a pamphlet of equal length with that of Mr. Hill. It is divided into four parts; 1. Exchanges; 2. Price of bullion; 3. Bank-notes 4. Bank-affairs: but the irregular mixture of a mass of facts, and the want of continuity in the reasoning, make it a matter of no small difficulty to exhibit any thing like a complete view of the scope and substance of this work. In a prefatory notice, Mr. Chalmers informs the public, somewhat significantly, that his production is nowise indebted to the Report of the Bullion-Committee, it having been prepared before the Report was delivered, and having undergone no alteration after he had been enabled to peruse that document; and we are then presented with a statement, in rather flowery terms, of the commercial prosperity of the year 1809. In explaining the causes of the distress which took place in 1810, he justly ascribes a great part of it to the loss of the American trade with the continent of Europe: but he falls into the common error of attributing to the Berlin Decree that which was in reality the result of our own Orders in Council. It is notorious that the American vessels were excepted from the operation of this high-sounding mandate; and it is equally notorious that the blockade of the British isles, which this Decree pretended to establish, could be nothing but a paper-blockade, a miserable effusion of spleen and arrogance. It was above ten months afterward that the first serious interruption of neutral traffic took place, namely on the 2d October 1807, by one of our Orders in Council, which imposed restraints on the navigation of the flags of Oldenburg, Mecklenburg, Paupenburg, and Kniphausen, the four neutral designations under which the Dutch were still carrying on an intercourse of great benefit to themselves and to us. France retorted with the customary irritability of her ruler; and the public acts which afterward ensued are too well known to need recapitulation.

Mr. Chalmers proceeds (p.45.) to enumerate the causes assigned by the mercantile witnesses before the Bullion-Committee for the fall of the continental exchange, and to combat (p.50.) the arguments brought forwards to account for it by the Committee. In the course of this reasoning, he has occasion to shew by tables that the expenditure of this country on the Continent is so great, as to require all the aid which trans-atlantic remittances can afford it. The export of goods being, as it is stated by Mr. Chalmers, the true restorative of the equilibrium of trade, the prohibitions enforced by France during the last twelvemonths have no doubt greatly contributed to aggravate the evil.

Under the second head, the price of bullion, we meet with some useful observations (p. 95.) on the history of the gold and silver-trade; the fluctuations in the latter of which are, in this country, much greater than those of the former. Mr. Chalmers having addressed some queries relative to the high price of gold in the North of Europe, to merchants residing at Hamburgh, received for answer that it seemed to be owing to three causes; viz. the payment of contributions from the North of Germany to France; the wants of the Russian military chest, exhausted by the war with the Turks; and the purchases of corn in Poland for English account, the payment of which is regularly made to the Polish seller in gold. We are disposed to attach more importance to these communications than to one which Mr. Chalmers received from Paris, and on which he appears to lay great stress, viz. that a company is established there, under the sanction of the Emperor, for the purpose of draining England of its gold and silver, both of which are from 2½ to 5 per cent. higher in Paris than in Hamburgh or Amsterdam. Taking it for granted that Mr. Chalmers's information is correct, and that an association of this singular character has actually been established, it is clear that they cannot obtain our gold and silver without giving us a premium for those metals; a condition on which we may safely make them welcome to as much as they chuse to take. The mines of America are open to us, and the returns received from France would soon enable us to carry on a brisk trade in transporting bullion from the western to the eastern world. The specie transmitted by us to the Continent of Europe cannot be hoarded; it must be issued for general circulation; and if we are at length taught by experience to recall our restraints on neutral trade, a large part of it must find its way back to our shores. Were the French government to commit the folly of paying a premium for gold from this country, is it not likely that foreign gold would be brought to England for the purpose of being again exported, and sold to Messrs. Napoleon and Co. for the sake of the premium?—and would it not be easy, as soon as the Corsican partnership re-issued the gold, to buy it up, re-ship it to England, and again obtain the premium?—We have been induced to detain our readers with these almost superfluous arguments, because this imperial association is repeatedly mentioned in the course of this work, (pp.76. 90. 105.) and because errors of this kind obtain too easy and too rapid a circulation among us. We should never fail to keep in mind that the present aukward state of our money-system does not arise from a want of gold and silver, but from irregularities in the state of our trade and of our laws, which have the effect of holding out, in a manner, a premium to the exportation and melting of any specie that may be put in the shape of English coin.

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and their practice most saluta
pamphlet, or rather book, prese
tables:

1. A chronological statement
our customs, and our money co
half, viz. from the Restoration t

2. An account for the last tw
our exports, our shipping clear
our continental exchanges, our pr
foreign gold, and the number o
local improvements.

3. A list of all the Banks of E
distinguished into counties, with
tricts in which they are establishe

The summary of this

Bank of England -
Banking-houses (not issuing notes
ster, and Southwark -
Country-banks issuing notes in
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Banks and branches of Banks in S

(III.) We come now to Mr. Thornton's 'Observations,' a work equally hostile to the Bullion-Commitee with that of Mr. Chalmers, but conveying its animadversions on their doctrines in more measured terms. Mr. Blake's pamphlet (see our Review for January) likewise comes in for a large portion of Mr. T.'s criticism; which, however, is successful only in detached points, and leaves unshaken the main body of the fabric. Mr. Thornton's publication is the production of a gentleman who is accustomed in general to pursuits of a very different nature from political economy, but who has been occasionally introduced, by his diplomatic functions, to a knowlege of exchange-transactions of great importance. His case is somewhat similar to that of a practical man who undertakes to write on trade without an acquaintance with its principles; and his work discovers a considerable share of the indecision attendant on a state of knowlege thus limited, though not always avowed so ingenuously as it is admitted by Mr. Thornton. He confesses in his preface (page 13.) that, although he has laboured most sincerely for his own conviction, he has yet many doubts on the whole question. 'I never rise,' he adds, 'from the perusal of the very acute and ingenious performance of Mr. Blake, without the impression of something which confounds and confuses, but never convinces me; which leaves me doubtful of myself, and gives me no other ground of confidence or certainty.'—The principal object of Mr. Thornton, as of Mr. Hill, is to shew that the fall of our continental exchanges has not been occasioned by the state of our paper-currency, but by circumstances in the condition of our commerce; an argument in which we have no hesitation to agree with him, without any other objections than to the very diffuse mode which he has adopted for enforcing it. He remarks very properly (p.133.) that the witness, on whom the Committee have placed their chief reliance for explanations of the state of exchange, never speaks of the excess but always of the non-convertibility of our bank-notes. Mr. Thornton is equally successful in proving (p.136.) that the occupation of the North of Germany by the French was by no means attended with the mischievous consequences that have been attributed to it: but he affords a curious contrast to this accuracy of information, when he adds, a few pages farther on, that it is to the Berlin Decree that we owe the suspension of our continental intercourse. It is singular that an individual so much engaged in public life should not be aware of the important fact, that the Berlin Decree remained, in regard to the American trade, a dead letter, until we began to adopt measures against neutral navigation.

Of Mr. Thornton's pamphlet, as of that of Mr. Chalmers, we must say that the diffuse and immethodical manner in which it is put together makes it a task of no small difficulty to exhibit a view of its contents. After some observations, of little consequence, on the propriety of calling the par of exchange ‘the ratio of equality,’ Mr. T. animadverts on the freedom with which *excess* of currency is mentioned by the writers who are hostile to the Bank, when *augmentation* of currency would have been a more appropriate term. He then proceeds to argue, in contradiction to the Bullion-Committee, and with considerable force, that no depreciation can arise from excess of paper of undoubted character, other causes being always present to account for a temporary discredit in a case of that description. We are afterward called (p. 62.) to give our assent to a proposition of a more doubtful aspect; viz. that a ‘depreciation of our paper does not lessen the value of our guinea to foreigners.’ Abroad, it is clear that, however depreciated may be our paper, an English guinea will, like any other coin, be worth its intrinsic value: but at home the case is more complicated. A foreigner cannot export the guinea in the shape of coin without some degree of risk and expence; to melt it is illegal, if it be not worn down to a certain weight; and even when melted, it cannot, like foreign gold, be sworn off for exportation —All these considerations are drawbacks on the value of our guinea to the foreigner, and affect the estimate which he will make of it in exchange for his goods.

One of the passages of Mr. Thornton's pamphlet, which afforded us most pleasure, was his account (p. 84.) of the plan of the Bank of Hamburgh, and his encomium on the wisdom and humanity of many of the institutions of that once independent city. Another point in which we fully agree with him is in regard to the security of this country against the commercial competition of France, whatever may be the exertions of her ruler. Well may our countrymen say, with this author, that despotism is ill fitted to confer the confidence or the tranquillity, which are both necessary to the employment of capital in all the diversified modes which the wants of a people demand. ‘Manufacture, with all her train of mechanic arts, may exclaim to the despot,

—— “*Manus hæc inimica tyrannis*
— *petit placidam sub libertate quietem.*”

The last passage in this pamphlet on which we can bestow encomium is that at p. 157. in which Mr. Thornton declares himself averse to making the suspension of cash-payments a permanent measure, and expresses an anxiety to bring things back to their former course as soon as the state of our commerce becomes settled.—Of the *defective* parts of the publication, it would not be difficult to exhibit various examples: but we shall content ourselves with one,—the inquiry (p. 154.) into the causes of the rapid rise of the price of commodities. Mr. Thornton imagines a variety of causes, and seems puzzled to fix on any one of them. He is greatly at a loss whether it be owing to 'the real augmentation of national wealth, or to its more equable diffusion over the whole community; whether the physical productive powers of the soil or the energies of general industry have not kept pace, or have not been able to keep pace, with the augmentation of active capital; whether the vast extension of the banking and discounting system, by creating a fictitious capital, or by giving greater activity, and a more rapid circulation, to that already existing, has produced this effect on prices.' Of these several conjectures, we must confess that the one which relates to the slow progress of the productive powers of our soil and industry is entirely new to us: but it is still more remarkable that Mr. Thornton says no more of taxation as a cause, than if we had not been subjected to a single new duty during these twenty years.

On the whole, we cannot take leave of this writer without reiterating our complaint of his want of order and condensation; nor without adding that his work appears more creditable to the integrity of his intentions, than to the maturity of his reflection on the subject of Banks and Bullion.

(IV.) Of Mr. Eliot's 'Observations,' it is not permitted to us, in the rigid exercise of critical justice, to express ourselves in terms of higher approbation. The style, with the exception of some common-place quotations, is not open to animadversion: but the work betrays a deficiency, similar to that of Mr. Thornton, in the arrangement of the arguments. Its great object is to shake the credit of the pamphlet of Mr. E.'s friend Mr. Huskisson: and it may accordingly be said to consist of a long series of objections to arguments advanced by that late Secretary to the Treasury. Mr. E. alludes, in the beginning, to the limited portion of time which is left him by the pressure of official duties; and, if this circumstance be considered in connection with the peculiar intricacy of the subject, it will not excite surprise that we find reasons for refusing our assent to several of his conclusions:—among others, to his favourite notion (p. 55.) that the pound sterling, in money of account, is our only accurate and invariable measure of wealth. Gold, according to Mr. Eliot, (p. 164.)

human frame, by which stronger constitutions throw off the seeds of those mortal disorders, under which the weaker stamina would pine and lanquish into wasting atrophy.'

Other passages in this pamphlet, however, if they afforded us less amusement than these chimæras of Mr. Eliot's fancy, were more satisfactory to our serious meditations; and they suffice to shew that he is capable, at times, of avoiding those extravagances with which a considerable part of this publication is chargeable. We are desirous of classing in the list of favourable exceptions, his argument (p. 106.) that it is much more difficult to obtain accommodation from country-banks than persons commonly suppose; his answer (p. 96.) to the curious observation of the Bullion-Committee, that discounts are a public good, while the augmentation of currency, which is consequent on them, may be a public evil; and his resistance (p. 99. 109. and 128.) of the accusation that the banking-system has been the great cause of the rise of prices. He proceeds to shew (p. 131.) by a course of reasoning which, in our opinion, is the best part of the tract, that the increase of capital caused by banking has, in one way, a tendency to lower the price of commodities, namely by augmenting their quantity, the advances of banking-houses being made not to consumers but to growers and dealers. Useful, however, as these observations are, it is not on them but on the precious doctrine of the money-unit, that Mr. Eliot rests his chief claim to public attention; for, after having quoted a long passage on the subject from Sir James Steuart, he takes great pains to assure his readers (p. 12.) that his own opinions had been established before 'he had either seen or heard a word of Sir James Steuart's sentiments.'

We will merely add, after this distribution of praise and censure to different parts of Mr. Eliot's pamphlet, that some passages in it possess a mixed character; such as (p. 85.) his argument that Bank of England-notes have increased less rapidly than the public generally supposed, and (p. 90.) that our stock of circulating medium has borne of late a much smaller proportion than formerly to the amount of payments made through its means. He appears to be right in both positions: but we wish to qualify our assent to them, by remarking that he seems to carry the former too far; and in respect to the latter, that less connection exists than he imagines between the respective amounts of national money and national payments. — Mr. Eliot was the author of "Financial Demonstration;" a tract of which a short notice was given in our Number for December 1809, p. 440.

(V.) The last of the tracts which we shall notice at present is that of Mr. Wilson. The charge of prolixity would here be by no means applicable; this pamphlet appearing to contain more within a small compass than most of the performances on the Bullion-question. The author's design is to shew that the chief source of the depreciation of money in this country, and one of the great causes of the rise of exchange and of bullion, may be found in our injudicious system of corn-laws. We have ceased, as he justly observes, during forty years, to grow corn enough for our own consumption; yet, so far from opening our ports to foreign supplies, we prohibit their importation, except when our markets are advanced to such a rate as must necessarily perpetuate high prices among us. The landholder, flattering himself with being a great gainer by these laws, because they raise his rents, soon finds that an advance in corn is productive of a correspondent advance in other commodities, and that his expenditure must undergo a speedy augmentation: and a little farther reflection would convince him that this forced rise on the price of corn is not only useless but injurious to him, because it is injurious to the prosperity of the country in which he has so large a stake.

Mr. Wilson's publication is useful by exhibiting, in the shape of calculations and tables, things which are generally discussed in a less explicit manner. The price of wheat, on an average of the last sixteen years, exceeds the average of the preceding sixteen years, in the proportion of 173l. to 100l. In the price of labour, he computes (though with less accuracy relatively to the southern than the northern part of the island,) that the advance has been nearly equal; while in the value of land it seems to have been greater. All this time the annuitant and the mere money-holder have been undergoing a proportional depreciation of property; it being a fact (p. 65.) that twenty-three millions issued at present, in payment of the interest of the public dividends, will buy a smaller quantity of corn than fourteen millions would have purchased in the year 1797.—After such judicious observations on the amount of depreciation, it is singular to find that a writer of Mr. Wilson's good sense is a stranger to the influence of taxation in producing this effect. Our corn laws, he says, are the great cause, and taxation is only subordinate:—but had he bestowed an attentive examination on that part only of our taxation which affects agriculture, he would have seen enough of its operation to induce him to assign to it a different rank in his scale of calculation.—In regard to the principles of exchange, Mr. Wilson appears to adopt the reasoning of Mr. Blake, with the exception of the charge of over-issue of bank-paper, which he treats

(p. 30.) as the next thing to impossibility. Another material distinction between them, in regard not to principles indeed, but to the origin of the present irregularities in our money-system, consists in the estimate of the influence of commercial and political causes on the rate of our continental exchange. This influence is strongly maintained by Mr. Wilson; while, as we remarked in our review of Mr. Blake, a contrary course on the part of that writer appeared to us the chief blemish of his production.

When treating of depreciation of money, Mr. Wilson makes a distinction which may be useful to those whose ideas on this subject are not very clear. He separates the question (p. 4.) into the following divisions. 1. A general fall in the value of the precious metals throughout the civilized world: 2, a local fall of their value in this country: 3, a fall in the value of our bank-paper, without reference to any alteration in that of our precious metals. He presents us likewise, in the latter part of his work, with five tables; the first exhibiting the state of our trade since the year 1700; the second representing in one view the average price of wheat, the exchange with Hamburgh, and the market-price of gold, during the last thirty years; the third stating the Bank of England-notes in circulation since 1795, with a conjectural estimate of the whole of our circulating medium; the fourth shewing the fall in the value of our money since 1797; and the fifth exhibiting the prices of corn in the county of Edinburgh since the year 1640. Of these various papers, the first and the last appear to us the most valuable. Mr. Wilson, being a director of the Bank of Scotland, introduces some useful explanations of the routine of banking business: but he certainly carries his argument too far when he asserts that our bank-paper has undergone no depreciation whatever; and (p. 24.) that the circumstance of the market-price of gold having been, during these *ten years*, so high as 4l. an ounce, is no proof of the fall of notes. We differ also from him when he observes (p. 63.) that 'a reduction of our notes *never* can be the means of restoring our exchange.' A great reduction of our notes certainly would have that effect, but it would be attended with a degree of public and private distress, in comparison with which all our former embarrassments would be insignificant.

In conclusion, we may remark that Mr. Wilson's tract, hasty and indigested as it is, gives evidence of considerable knowlege of the subject; and we take leave of its author by adding, what we would not venture to say to most of his rival pamphleteers on the subject of bullion, that we regret that his observations were not extended to a greater length.

tracted for an interleaved Bible, o
more resemble condensed sermons
annotations made in the course of
sacred writings.

When we first took up the volum
the pages, we were led to expect
learned quotations, a critical exami
we soon found that Dr. P.'s obje
literature than a statement of his o
sages which he had selected were
sake of affording an opportunity o
theological and practical subjects.
the result of a mind which has
directed to scriptural study, the rea
page, though he may often have reaso
mentator. Since, in the introductio
perusal of Mr. Locke's preface to St.
to have found in him an expositor
losopher: but Dr. P. is not a secon
that, in every instance, he has most
his sentiments: but he appears no
panded his mind, having suffered sy
to maintain an ascendancy which
philosophy. If, however, in his z
has occasionally violated that tempera
so rare and yet so necessary in theo
Scaliger he may say, in words which
of his preface, "*Neminem lacessi*
allatravi." Nevertheless, to

blinded *by the god of this world.*' (p. 283.) Nor will the present remarker gain much reputation for the appositeness of his comments, by the curious and unexpected note on Job ii. 4. "*Skin for skin, yea, all that a man hath will he give for his life.*" Instead of an explanation of this text, the following very irrelevant matter is appended:

'It is the great misfortune of those people, who leave the church they were brought up in, to be led away with the *enticing words* of *self-appointed teachers;* because they think they are lawful *ministers,* and believe their doctrine to be sound and *salutary,* and that they take more pains to awaken men to a sense both of their duty and of their danger than *rectors, vicars,* or their *curates,* do; and for this reason, they hope to be justified before God for their separation; because, that regard which they owe to their souls, and the common salvation, seems to require it; not considering, *that even deceivers and false teachers may preach wholesome and true doctrine;* that the doctrine perhaps, is not to be condemned, but those who teach it, without lawful authority. The devil himself, to serve his ends, will sometimes preach; when he tempted our blessed Saviour, he tried to overcome him with texts of Scripture: and in the above passage he says to God, *Skin for skin, yea, all that a man hath will he give for his life,* of which it will be sufficient only to remark, that it is "a great truth out of a great liar's mouth."

'The devil can cite Scripture for his purpose.
An evil soul, producing holy witness,
Is like a villain with a smiling cheek,
A goodly apple rotten at the heart.
Shakespear. Merchant of Venice, Act 1. sc. 3.

'I would, therefore, recommend to those *teachers,* who think of themselves above what they ought to think, and who pretend to *new light* and *spiritual raptures,* in order to draw away weak and unstable people after them, what the prophet Ezekiel says, *Woe unto the foolish prophets, that follow their own spirit, and have seen nothing!* chap. xiii. ver. 3.

'Ignorant of themselves: of God, much more,
And in themselves seek virtue, and to themselves
All glory arrogate; to God give none.
Milton, Parad. Reg. B. 4.

Since the majority of Dr. P.'s notes have a practical and pious aspect, and are illustrated by parallel passages from the Greek and Roman classics, as well as from our own poets, we were sorry to find him overstepping the bounds of moderation, because many persons may thus be debarred from partaking of his exhortations. In the present age of free inquiry, (which will proceed in spite of all opposition,) it is highly impolitic for the clergy to call in question the right of private judgment, and to attempt to prove, after the permission given by the apostle in 1. Cor. x. 15. that 'vain must be the pretences of those who contend for the absolute liberty of every private judgment.' When in the following passage Dr. P. speaks of the Church of England having powers intrusted to her *by God*, it seems as if he claimed infallibility for her: yet this is not the case, since she is allowed to be liable to error, and is said to be *ready to be better informed*; though it is not easy to perceive how this information can be conveyed if the discussion of religious doctrines is to be restrained. As it is not very likely, moreover, that the Established Church will pay sectaries the compliment of understanding the Scriptures more accurately than she does, or will allow that they can inform her better than she can instruct herself, it is the preferable mode for both parties with a liberal spirit to agree to differ. Dr. P. may tell the sectaries that the Established Church does not '*abhor* a reformation:' but if at the same time he decides (p. 392.) that, unless we can have new scriptures, we can never have *new articles* of faith, the controversy in one view of it is hopeless.

> 'She (the Church of England) considers herself required to keep those things committed to her charge, those powers which God intrusted her with, for the better edification of his people; one of which is, a power to interpret Scripture for the illiterate and unstable, who otherwise would wrest it to their own destruction. She claims it her prerogative, to be heard by such with submission and respect, and a due deference to her knowledge of languages, her skill in history, to her wisdom, experience, and labour; and to the Spirit of God promised to be given to her, and to the presence of Christ promised to remain with her, *alway to the end of the world.* Yet does she not absolutely insist on this prerogative; she allows that she may err, as the churches of Alexandria and Antioch have, and is ready at all times to be better informed; she permits every one the free use of his reason, and of the word of God; and because men enjoy the free use of both, she therefore more confidently expects, that, until they can inform her better, they should act as she enjoins; with that modest submission which she is sure the word of God commands, and reason always, when rightly understood, will give.'

Two or three pages from this place, we find Dr. P., in a comment on 1 Cor. xi. 2., "Keep the ordinances as I *delivered them unto you*," singularly maintaining that 'the customs of God's people, and the appointments of our forefathers, must be held for laws:' but the text is authority only for the observance of ordinances of *apostolic sanction*; and, if Dr. P.'s principle be admitted, our rejection of the ceremonies of Popery cannot be justified, because they have antiquity on their side, and are appointments which our forefathers reverenced. We shall say no more, however, on Dr. P.'s injudicious mode of fighting the battles of the Established Church. — We should suspect that he is in some degree addicted to superstition; since he inclines to the exploded belief of *demons* and *apparitions*, (p. 80.) and states it to be 'the opinion of most divines (what a mistake!) that the real soul of Samuel was raised up by the witch of Endor.' (p. 333.)

Dr. Popham proceeds regularly from Genesis to Revelation, and in the course of his examination of the Jewish and Christian scriptures, more points are noticed than we can specify. It is not easy to give a general character of his miscellaneous observations, since, as may be supposed, the remarks have different merit: some are valuable, while others are not in our judgment intitled to this epithet; some of the comments are long, and others are short; some convey information which will be generally acceptable, and others are notes which, without injury to the work, might have been spared. Of the latter, we give two or three specimens.

" Gen. xlvii. 3. — What is your occupation?"

' The following question in the Greek Poet is very similar to the above.

' Ἔργον μεριμνῶν ποῖον, ἢ βίον τίνα ; Sophocl. Oedip.'—

" Prov. xxx. 8. Give me neither poverty nor riches."

' This prayer of Agur's is not only judicious, but truly philosophical. Extreme poverty and great riches are almost equally opposite to true happiness.'—

" Jer. xxx. 16. All faces are turned into paleness."

' *That is, became pale through fear.*

' —— Ora pallor albus inficit,
Mentesque perculsæ stupent. Horat. L. v. Epod. 7,

' ——— With stupid wonder gaze,
While the pale cheek their inward guilt betrays. Dr. Dunkin.

' —— Pallor simul occupat ora. Æneid. L. iv. v. 499.

' —— So much of death her thoughts
Had entertain'd, as dy'd her cheeks with pale.
Milton. Par. Lost, B. x. v. 1008.'

The contents of an entire page, and the whole of Dr. P.'s remarks on the book of Micah, thus concisely present themselves to the reader:

" Micah. vii. 19. Thou wilt cast all their sins into the depths of the sea."

' The meaning of the above passage is, That God would have compassion, and forgive all their iniquities, and bury them in oblivion for ever and for ever.'

For long notes, in the form of dissertations, we may refer to 2. Kings iii. 15. where Dr. P. is strenuous in urging the importance of sacred music; — to Job. xiv. 14. where the crime of suicide is reprobated; — to Eccles. xii. 10. where a lecture on preaching will be found; — to Amos. iii. 3. where the

played, that the hand of the Lord
'We here find that Elisah was co
the son of Ahab, who made Israel s
the Prophet as his God, and had abo
remembrance of which, being reviv
assistance, raised Elisah to such gri
him for his sacred function; and on
to suffer Jehoram's presence: but
done right in the eyes of the Lord,
the inquirers also, for his sake the
better, if possible, of his anger; an
to renew in himself the prophetic spir
with thee, says he to Jehoram; *get th*
and the Prophets of thy mother. As t
whom I stand, *were it not that I regar*
would not look toward thee, nor see thee
And it came to pass, when the minstrel p
came upon him. No sooner had the m
but God's Spirit could work in the
supernatural: and that this is God's m
in the ordinary dispensations of his g
for music *naturally qualifies the hum*
*the Spirit of God**: and this, I conceiv
off our Thoughts from other things,
motions.'—

'It has been asked by those who ar
I mean the *Organ*, Why the benefits,
are not so commonly reaped as they
objection, I might reply, *That the for*
is always found to prevail. A plain p
and to the praise, be it spoken, of thos
over the various Charity Schools in

directed to the passions of the audience, the voice of the children themselves singing to the *Organ;* and this has been found from constant experience always to increase the collection*.—

'Some persons are deaf to the force of musick, as others are to every sound, through the natural indisposition of their auricular nerves: but let no man think that all men are uncapable of what the infirmity of some natures denies to them. Let none, for their credit's sake, boast of their infirmity; for common observation has agreed to remark those who are insensible to the charms of musick, to be of a disposition no way commendable; self willed, revengeful, sullen, fit for secret villainy, and relentless cruelty, for ambition and oppression, for schism and rebellion.

'The man that hath not musick in himself,
And is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils;
The motions of his spirit are dull as night,
And his affections dark as Erebus:
Let no such man be trusted.
Shakespear. Merchant of Venice, Act 5. sc. 1.

'And I wish the history of the reign of King Charles the First, did not give too just grounds for this remark? The men in those times of confusion were they, who deaf to the charms of musick, and the grand objectors to *Organs* in our churches, soon proceeded to all other kinds of wickedness. When they set their hearts against the ceremonies of our church, they pillaged it; they destroyed our constitution, beheaded their King, slaughtered their fellow-subjects, became deaf to the groans of their murdered brethren, deaf to the cries of starving orphans, deaf to the lamentations of helpless widows, deaf to the reproof of neighbouring nations, deaf to the remonstrances of their own countrymen, deaf to the check of their own consciences, deaf to the motions of God's Holy Spirit. Evils unspeakable! which first shewed themselves in prejudice taken to our church-musick, as if it was unedifying and useless: men having hardened their hearts, then stopped their ears, *like the deaf adder which refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, charm he never so wisely.*'—

'Who doubts, but that many of that great multitude which crowds our Cathedrals on the Lord's day are such as come more for the sake of hearing the *Organ* than from any principle of devotion?

'——— Some to church repair,
Not for the doctrine, but the musick there. Pope.

'Would not their want of piety, if there was no musick, carry such people to spend their holy day in places much worse, in actions far less innocent? At least, such persons have this benefit from musick, that they are allured, for the time, out of the way of temptation from the commission of vice. And we may venture to affirm, that many find much greater benefit; first drawn to church for the musick, and there caught by the sweetness of it to stay listening, till insensibly they give way to the operations of God's grace, and, like Saul, *are changed into other men.*'

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* Dr. P. does not mention the *dinner*, which operates more powerfully in favour of charity than either the Sermon or the Organ. The collection after dinner generally exceeds that which was made at the church-door. *Rev.*

These passages having taken up so much room, we are prevented from copying many more of the remarks of Dr. P.: but we must specify an instance, among others, of judicious comment in the note on Matth. vi. 7. where he truly observes, 'that the expression of our Saviour is not intended at large against all repetition of our prayers, or speaking much when we pray; but against much speaking when separate from that affection and disposition of heart, which the purity and majesty of God require.'

We are surprised that so learned a man as Dr. P. should not have adverted in his note on 1 John v. 7. to the fact of its being a spurious text. Had his remarks displayed more of the discrimination of true criticism, and less round assertion, they would have been more congenial to our taste.

ART. XIV. *An Enquiry into the Extent and Stability of National Resources.* By the Rev. Thomas Chalmers, Kilmany, N. B. 8vo. pp. 365. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE object of the present work seems to be less to advance the science of which the author treats than to render it subservient to the schemes and designs of the politician. Mr. Chalmers is of opinion that governments have entertained very exaggerated notions of the importance of manufactures, and have cherished an impolitic tenderness towards those who are engaged in them. He considers the population of each country as divided into three classes, the first consisting of those who are employed in agriculture, the second of those who are engaged in producing what he calls the second necessaries of life, and the third of those whose province it is to supply the luxuries of life, whom he denominates the disposeable population of a state. According to his theory, the employment of this last class should be considered as being entirely at the disposal of government; and whether the whole or any part of them shall be employed in civil industry, he contends, should be equally left to the discretion of the rulers of the state. It is also his opinion that, though a government should altogether withdraw this class from manufactures, and employ them for military purposes, the wealth of the nation would be in no degree diminished; the land would still yield the same produce the consumer would still receive the income which he expended on them; and there being no manufactures to purchase with it, the state would not only fill up its levies with the men, but would have at its command the resources which the consumers had been in the habit of spending on the fruits of their former industry. The only difference which this change would make, Mr. C. thinks, would be that articles of mere luxury would no longer be produced; and that the consumer would be obliged to sacrifice the gratification which he had been accustomed to derive from them, and to pay to the officers of the revenue, for the service of the state, the sums which he had formerly expended on them.—The reader will perceive that these notions coincide very much with the doctrine of Mr. Spence; and indeed Mr. Chalmers does little more than apply the principles of that writer with respect to foreign commerce, to the case of our internal manufactures; differing from Mr. Spence only by more explicitly avowing his tenets, and more boldly pursuing them to their consequences.

That, in ascribing to the author the doctrines which we have stated, we do him no injustice, a few passages from his work will perhaps suffice to prove:

> 'The whole value of a manufacture lies in the enjoyment that accrues to the purchaser from the consumption of its commodities. If the money expended on these commodities is withdrawn from the purchase of them, and given in the form of a tax to government, the manufacture is annihilated. Now, what is the precise extent of the mischief which ensues? Does it diminish the extent of our disposable population? No. The food and commodities which supported the whole train of labourers engaged in the manufacture, still exist in the country; and will give the same comfort and subsistence as before to an equal number; only their industry is directed to another employment. Does it ruin the capitalist? If the country conceived itself bound in justice to him, that portion of food and commodities which were awarded to him in the form of profit, still exists, and the ability lies with government to give him a full indemnification. The whole extent of disposable population is supported; and the only loss that is sustained, is the loss of the manufactured commodity, the loss of an enjoyment. This is the simple alternative. This is the whole extent of the mischief that is sustained; every gloomy anticipation of national ruin, and poverty, and disorder, is unfounded; it is an airy and unsupported illusion, a mere spectre of melancholy, which, like the phantom of superstition, can only assail the hearts of the ignorant.
>
> 'I selected one manufacture merely as the example and illustration of a general argument. It applies, without exception, to every article which is prepared by the industry of our disposable population, and which serves to administer to the luxury and enjoyment of individuals. If the necessities of the state call for the whole price of these

fence, to their security, and to the
do not deny that there will be a c
dreadful as we anticipate. The wh
to the loss of certain enjoyments;
months, we *will* see the country sup
posable population; and having its in
emergency of the times.'—

'One of the chief reasons why a d
nexed to the manufacturing interest
public service are in general raised by
modities. If the manufacture did no
and it is therefore supposed that it is
debted for all the addition which the
revenue of the country. But surely it
tioned, that it is not the manufacture v
thing to the public revenue. It is the
its commodities. The tax upon a mar
the price, and all that the manufactur
ment with a road by which it may arriv
ers. The manufacture may be destr
consumer remains; and all that govern
some new path by which to reach it.

'A tax upon a commodity has the
able population of the country into tw
tained by the tax, and labours for the
The other part is maintained by the na
and, in manufacturing that commodi
service of individuals. If the manufact
can still levy the same tax as before up
different way. It can even do more.
sessment as would force us to let down
the use of the commodity altogether

It is the opinion of Mr. Chalmers, as it was that of Mr.
pence, that men will pursue their private concerns with the
ıme diligence and enterprize, whether the fruits of their in-
ıstry are employed in procuring gratifications for themselves,
are forced into the treasury. What a palatable doctrine is this
governors and rulers! It must be owned that of late
inisters have not shewn themselves averse from acting up to
, and seem to have little deserved to be charged with that
esitation and timidity in raising levies and imposing taxes,
ith which this author reproaches them. The doctors of the
ew school would be sure to be hailed and preferred, could
ey prove their doctrine true: but our statesmen, while they
o much sanction these frantic tenets by their practice, by
eir professions reject them with abhorrence. How strangely
ese sages overlook the principles of human nature, and the
otives of human conduct! Of the effects to which a flourish-
g commerce has invariably given rise, and the fact of the
ecline of all states in power and wealth, when forsaken by
ade, can these confident innovators be ignorant? Nothing
pears more clearly, from all past experience, than that
ernal traffic never becomes considerable where no foreign
de exists, and that agriculture never reaches its acme unless
ıen both flourish. China only appears to be an exception to
s rule, because it is a kind of world in itself. — It were
lless to enumerate all the oversights that are committed in
ning the absurd positions which it is the object of this
ıme to establish.

he connection of Mr. Chalmers's hypothesis with the ex-
led errors of the French economists, though he denies any
analogy, is apparent in the ensuing passages:

> manufacture can do nothing more than contribute its own ar-
> o the enjoyment of customers. It can give no revenue to govern-
> There is no creative, no inherent virtue in the manufacture;
> the consumer who contributes the revenue. All the wealth
> government derives from its taxes on manufactured commodi-
> to be traced to the ability of the customers. To destroy the
> cture, therefore, is not to destroy the ability of the country;
> y to change the customary or established road by which go-
> ıt arrived at the wealth of its subjects. All that a manufac-
> do is to furnish its own article for the enjoyment of its sup-
> and give employment to part of our disposable population.
> anufacture is annihilated, the whole mischief sustained is the
> e article. It does not affect the ability of its supporters;
> ındant wealth remains with them, to be given to the dis-
> opulation for some new service, some new species of in-
>
> public revenue is derived from taxes upon commodities, it
> r trial of the ability of the country. It is allowing the

country to maintain an immense disposable population for the supply of its luxuries, and only reserving a fraction, a remainder, of this population for the service of the state. It is proceeding upon the supposition, that the article of luxury must be prepared in the first instance, and that government must content itself with the crumbs and fragments, which, in the overflow of their gratification, the people of the country suffer to be left for the starving necessities of the public. It is making the indulgence of private luxury take the precedency of our great and national interests, and connecting the interest of the revenue with the profuse expenditure of individuals.'

We apprehend that, if governments be not contented with the crumbs and fragments here mentioned, but seize on the body of the article, *that* body will soon dwindle into something less than even the former crumbs and fragments.

In the subsequent paragraphs, the author states the process by which he would realize his hypotheses:

'It would perhaps be putting the patriotism of the country to too severe a trial, to lop off, by a sudden augmentation of its taxes, all the splendour and luxury that prevails in it. The revenue, except in the most trying emergencies of the state, should be made to *advance* by slow, and almost imperceptible, *advances;* manufactures be allowed to drop silently into decay and annihilation, and the people, by gradually reducing their expenditure, be let gently down to humble and temperate establishments.

'While there is room, however, for economy and retrenchment on the part of individuals, there is room for the augmentation of the public revenue. This economy has the effect of withdrawing a part of the disposable population from the employment of administering to private luxury. But this disposable population will not be annihilated. The food and the commodities which they formerly received from the hand of their employers, they will still receive from the hands of government. A new direction will be impressed upon their industry. Instead of labouring for our splendour and sensual gratification, they will labour in the capacity of public servants, for the preservation of our liberties, and the vindication of our national glory and independence.'

Mr. C. is indignant that manufactures should be

'Looked up to an original and independent interest, as possessing in themselves some native and inherent ability, and as if the very existence of the country depended upon their prosperity and extension. I maintain, that after you have described the use of their commodities to the private consumer, you have exhausted the enumeration of their advantages. The wear and consumption of him who uses them, absorbs the full effect of all the industry that has been employed upon their production. They expend all their virtue i administering to the pleasurable feelings of the purchaser. The manufacturer himself does not ascribe his wealth to the employment He ascribes it to the ability of the purchaser. Government ough not to ascribe any part of its revenue to the manufacture, because i

by

lays a tax upon its commodities. It should ascribe it to the same source, the ability of the purchaser. This ability remains, let the fate of the manufacture be what it may. The sole use of the manufacture to government, is to indicate a road by which it may arrive at the wealth of its subjects. Let the manufacture perish, and government will only have to devise some new path to that wealth which is permanent and unperishable. The sole advantage of the manufacture is not to contribute revenue, but to direct government where that revenue is to be found; and for this petty subordinate advantage, will our legislators pursue the most ruinous and mistaken policy, turn their attention from the solid wealth and resources of the country, give themselves up to the most womanish despair, because they see symptoms of decay in the manufacturing interests of the nation, and rest a primary importance on what is not the cause of wealth, but its indication?

'It is very strange, that the extension of our manufactures has ever been supposed to contribute to the strength and resources of the empire. All that it possibly can do is, to contribute a more copious supply of articles of consumption. A manufacture can neither give additional extent to our army, nor can it give additional extent to our means of maintaining it. The fact is, that, so far as it goes, it serves to impair the military strength of the country. It engrosses to itself all the natural price that is paid for its articles. It absorbs part of the wealth of the country. It exhausts so much of the ability of consumers, which ability, had it not been expended on the support of the manufacture, might have been expended on the maintenance of an army. This manufacture must have labourers to carry it on, and it therefore engrosses so many of the disposable population of the country. It keeps them back from entering into the army; and if we have a military establishment at all, it is not in consequence of manufactures, but in spite of them.'—

'If the army is to be extended at all, it must be by withdrawing the wealth of the country from the support of manufactures; it must be by trenching upon the manufacturing interest; and the extension of this interest, which is hailed by many a politician as the life and vigour of the nation, is the very thing which keeps down our military strength, and prevents the country from availing itself of its natural energies.'—

'I would never say that the military strength of the country had arrived at its limit, till I had abandoned every indulgence which is beyond the condition of a labourer, or till I had withdrawn the last man of the disposable population from the manufacture of luxuries.'

In the desultory observations which the author makes on this topic, he only labours a point which nobody at this day disputes, namely, that *internal* is more advantageous to a country than *external* commerce.—Having so lately had occasion to develope and expose the arcana of Mr. C.'s doctrine, we shall not encumber our pages with any more of the paradoxes, extravagances, and repetitions, which engross so large a portion of this volume; nor affront our readers by staying to oppose its attempts to shew that *man was made for nothing but to be taxed.*

hierarchy. To him it seems a
and to consecrate to the state
replenish his cellars: but has
been in the daily habit of sippi
more if he be not, will he
brewed beer?

ART. XV. *An Inquiry into the Im*
hibition of Distillation from Grain
injurious Effects on Agriculture,
Deficiency of national Subsisten
By William Dixon, junior. 8vo.
and Co. 1810.

ART. XVI. *Considerations on the*
tion of Corn in the Distillery; addre
Honourable Lord Holland. By
M. P. 8vo. pp. 72. 2s. 6d.

ABOUT two years have passed s
of our readers to the questio
During that interval, barley has b
law prohibiting distillation from
England and Scotland: but the fa
year having reduced the value o
eve of taking place in our legislati
alteration appears necessary, the d
been enforced there during one y
the expiration of that year, oats,
Ireland, being abundant, and the u
interfering materially with the exec
ing the use of that kind of corn, an
the distill

tendency of the plan at present under discussion in Parliament.

Mr. Dixon is a Liverpool merchant, but certainly not engaged in the West India trade, because we have seldom happened to meet with a more resolute opponent of sugar-distillation. He belongs to the class of advocates for a bounty on the export of corn, and abounds with the common-place arguments on the policy of encouraging agriculture by acts of parliament, and on the resource which the possession of a surplus for export to other countries affords to ourselves in seasons of scarcity. In his solicitude to encourage the use of corn in distillation, he goes a step farther than preceding writers, and ventures (p. 56.) to pass an eulogium on the use of spirits. 'From the tasting of wine,' he says, 'the poor are precluded; the temperate use of distilled spirits is sometimes their only remedy in sickness, their only palliative of bodily suffering; and it tends to exhilarate their mind, when dejected by present distress, by melancholy recollections, or by gloomy anticipations.' After this smooth representation of the moral and physical effects of spirits, Mr. Dixon introduces the condition of the farmer, for whom he appears to have a large portion of kind sympathy in store. The farmer's business, he says, is a very poor one, and cannot afford the want of the distillery; and the cultivation of barley has been, he assures us, suspended in many places, and the land turned into pasture. However, amid all this tender anxiety for the growers of corn, Mr. Dixon bestows no share of his sensibility on the consumers, though they form a class which, in these times, appears to be fully as much in need of it; and after all his lamentations on the ruinous effects to agriculture of the want of the distillery, his readers may be surprized to learn, on the evidence of Mr. Arthur Young *, that the consumption of barley in English distilleries is only *one-sixteenth* of the crop.

Notwithstanding these extremes into which Mr. Dixon appears to be led by partial feelings, we find, occasionally, observations in his pamphlet which deserve attention. We agree with him (p. 25.) that the obstacles to accuracy in country-returns of prices are such as make the currency of Mark-lane the best criterion. Another judicious remark, quoted by the author (p. 74.) from a printed letter by a Mr. Sanders, is that the consumption of oat and barley meal is not much affected by even a considerable rise in the price of wheat, because people adhere to their old habits as long as possible, and take refuge in economy, not from calculation,

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* Report of the Distillery-Committee, 1808.

sion of the writer's capacity. I
of sugar-distillation, which took
in the House of Lords, and in wh
Peers strongly opposed its contin
a contrary side from that of his
of Lord Holland's opinion was t
lay, not between the planter and t
the planter and the continental fa
to have recourse to importation
similar view of the case, appears
Lord Holland as the fittest chan
sentiments. He begins by compl
judices existing among members
of colonial interests, and is desiro
of the use of corn in the distiller
country, without reference to the
islands. His justification of it re
'on the certainty that importatio
exist if the stock in hand were su
that you must either retrench your
supply.' He adds that the farm
the price of corn than he imagine
fed; and whatever be the price of
to him either in wages or in poor-r
among other things, on the part
the damaged barley of the crop
brewers, would have been bought
law had permitted it: but to this
a positive denial; and he shews th
to use the best barley only, the
wash or first infusion of the barle

' a final stop should be put to both the export and import of corn, as soon as immediate exigence will permit, the interest both of corn-grower and consumer requiring it;' after which he proceeds to explain the manner in which he would have our home growth regulated, first producing a superfluity, and next controuling the consumption of that superfluity by law.

Such notions as these we have been accustomed to hear from farmers, and the unlettered part of our country-gentlemen, but we little expected them from a writer of Mr. Barham's talents. He who studies the principles of the corn-trade will soon discover that they are the same with those of trade in general, and that the true way is to impose no restraint on either import or export. By the adoption of this unrestricted freedom of intercourse, we shall be best enabled both to derive relief from our neighbours in the season of distress, and, in return, to convert to account, in years of abundance, the excess of our produce above our wants. The jealousy of importation entertained by the landed interest is ill-founded; since the freight of a bulky commodity, like corn, bears so large a proportion to its value, that its price in the importing country will always be high.

When he has closed his observations on the corn-trade, Mr. B. enters on a different field,—the condition of the sugar-planter. This ground is evidently more familiar to him, and we recognize on it a display of the same ability with which his speech formerly impressed us. (See Rev. March, 1809.) He explains briefly but clearly (p. 38.) the reasons which imperiously prevent a West-India-planter from withdrawing from his occupation, and (p. 42.) the circumstances which oppose a bar to the substitution of the culture of cotton or coffee for that of sugar. He proceeds to dwell (p.47.) on the hardships endured by the colonist from the monopoly so strictly enforced by the mother-country; which obliges him to ship home so much more produce than the market requires: — but not a word escapes Mr. Barham, to indicate a belief that this enforcement of monopoly is injurious to the interest of the parent-state herself. He does not seem aware that, had we left unfettered the industry of our colonies, had we imposed no restrictions on their commerce except the payment of a consumption-duty on the produce imported to the mother-country, then their population, wealth, and shipping, would have been far greater than they are at present; and that, instead of coming to Parliament for relief, they would have borne without murmuring a much larger share of the public burdens than it is, under actual circumstances, possible to assign to them. It is a remarkable proof of the slow progress of enlightened ideas, that a writer, who is in various respects well-informed, should remain as much unacquainted with the impolicy of monopoly as if Dr. Smith had never put a demonstration of it on record; or as if the fallen state of the finances of our East-India-Company did not afford an example of it, passing under the eyes of the whole country.

After having expatiated on the planter's distress, Mr. Barham endeavours to settle a more cheering topic, viz. the means of relieving him. He takes into consideration two methods; one the permission of bartering a part of the sugar-crop with the Americans for plantation-stores, a permission loudly required, both by justice and by policy. We have already expressed our sentiments (Vol. lviii. p. 275.) at considerable length in recommendation of this measure: but we fear that, now as formerly, our national prejudices in favour of all that has relation to our navigation-acts, and the clamour of the party calling themselves the shipping-interest, will restrain our government from listening to the results of deliberate policy. — The other plan discussed by Mr. Barham is one on which neither we nor others, as we presume, are as yet possessed of sufficient *data* to form an opinion; we mean, the application of sugar as food for the purpose of fattening cattle. We do not doubt that cattle of every kind may be fed and fattened on sugar: but the question is whether, if the duty were remitted, the sugar could be afforded at a price sufficiently low to permit the application; and the way to ascertain this point is to go through a variety of experiments, for the purpose of discovering the most advantageous mode of administering this new kind of food. This has not yet been done; the chief step taken has been to devise a method of preventing the sugar exempted from duty for this particular object from being fraudulently applied to any other; and chemical experiments have determined that sugar may be compounded, under the eye of the revenue-officer, with substances which, without affecting its value as food for cattle, will irrecoverably unfit it for the use of man.— Mr. Barham, after a few general observations on the condition of the planter, brings his 'Letter' to a close; and finishes an exposition of the distillery-question and of the state of the West-India-trade, which, if we except the two points on which we have noticed his singular aberrations, deserves to hold a respectable rank among the pamphlets submitted to the public on the subject.

Having investigated the merits of these adverse pamphlets, we come now to the farther object of this article,—an explanation of the measures pursued by Parliament.—In the spring of 1808, the sugar-market continued at the same low rate as for several years before, the importation from the conquered colonies producing a great over-stock, and leaving the planter scarcely any return on his capital. The advance in the price of barley in that year justified Ministers in proposing a prohibition of corn for the distillery, and enabled them to carry it through Parliament after a keen contest with the landed interest. This prohibition was enacted for one year; and the next crop proving defective, it was renewed for another season without much difficulty. In 1810, a renewal for the third time came under consideration; and the price of barley being high, it passed readily through the House of Commons. In the House of Lords, the opposition was serious, but the Ministers succeeded in carrying it, notwithstanding the exertions of Lord Lauderdale. Distillation from sugar continued, therefore, for above two years; an interval during which, though the prices of that commodity were not high, the planter had no great reason to complain:—but the favourable harvest of the last year seemed to make a new æra in the question; wheat was deficient, while barley and other grain were abundant; and it remained to be seen whether the high price of wheat would lead to a general substitution of other kinds of corn, which would have the effect of raising their value, while it lowered that of wheat. Such would, in all probability, have been the result in a country of simple habits and contracted wealth: but in England, it appears, our affluence is not yet affected to such a degree as to make us submit to a sacrifice of our customary demands. Our common people, having been always habituated to wheaten bread, must still have it, notwithstanding its price, so that wheat remains high, while barley and oats are lower. After the fall of barley which has taken place since the last year's crop has been thrashed out, and the favourable weather has given it free access to the market of the metropolis, it became probable that the landed interest would no longer brook their exclusion from the sugar-distillery. On the other hand, Ministers were well apprized that to take away the distillery from the sugar-planter would be to immerse him in the same ruinous state in which he was before; and they accordingly steered a middle course, bringing a bill into Parliament to admit indiscriminately the use of either sugar or corn, and regulating the duty on such a footing of equality, that the greater cheapness of either commodity should be the rule to influence the distiller in employing it.

The landed interest, with that monopolizing spirit which generally characterizes the possession of power, had taken care, many years ago, to provide by Act of Parliament for the exclusive use of corn in the distillery. The extra duty imposed permanently on sugar-spirit amounted to nearly three shillings per gallon*, a sum which completely removed it from competition with barley; and so seldom have Ministers chosen to risk an interference with the landed interest, that this act has undergone suspension only three times in the course of forty years. These suspensions took place in 1795, 1800, and 1808, and were carried into effect, on the two former occasions, by the authority of Mr. Pitt, and the public call for economy in the use of grain in consequence of scarcity; while, on the third, the heavy distresses of our colonists, joined to the high price of barley, may be regarded as the primary motives of the measure. It was not enough, at these respective periods, to grant an admission of sugar to the distillery on equal terms with corn; the taste of the consumer and the habits of the manufacturer having been so long conformed to corn-spirit, that a preference would still have been given to it. An absolute prohibition of corn was therefore necessary; and though the practice of two years may now have had some tendency to lessen the prepossession against sugar-spirit, we are inclined to think that farther improvements in its manufacture will still be requisite to enable it to enter into competition with corn-spirit of the same price. Had an equality of duty been our policy throughout, the presumption is that the application of the skill of our distillers to the properties of sugar would before now have given a permanent preference to that ingredient, and have enabled us to consume a better and cheaper spirit. The advantage of this effect would have been enjoyed either by the consumer or by the state; by the consumer, in paying less money for the liquor; or if, which is probable, the consumption price had been equal to the present, a larger share would have gone to the state in the shape of duty, in consequence of the prime cost of the liquor being less. In consequence, however, of the discouragement formerly given to sugar-spirit, much time will elapse before it becomes generally acceptable to the people; for during the present year it is probable that barley will chiefly occupy the distillery; and unless some measures be adopted for the relief of the planters, it is to be feared that we shall be exposed to a repetition of the complaints of the years 1807 and 1808.

It may appear to most readers that an equalization of duty on sugar and corn for home-made-spirits is a fulfilment, in this branch of trade, of the principle of political economy which teaches us to give things their free course. It is, however, neither a full compliance with principle, nor a good practical method of deriving a large revenue from the consumption of liquor. The proper method of extracting spirits from the sugar-cane is to do it on the spot by making rum: but, in looking into our notable acts of Parliament on commercial subjects, we shall find that provision is made for discouraging the competition of rum with home-made gin, by burdening the former with an additional duty of not less than 3s. 5d. per gallon. Were it not for this extra impost, the consumption of spirits throughout the British empire would chiefly consist in rum, as appears from the evidence of the distillers themselves*. These gentlemen acknowlege that rum of equal strength with our corn-spirit can be imported for *three shillings per gallon less:* but the all powerful influence of the landed interest imposes a clog on its sale, that it may not, forsooth, interfere with the consumption of corn for home-made-spirits. The nation is therefore obliged to pay three shillings per gallon more for a spirit which is certainly not superior to rum, in order that landholders may be enabled to make a small addition to the amount of their rent-roll. If government, acting with strict impartiality to all classes, would resort to the simple expedient of raising the duty on home-made gin to the same rate with that on rum, and would leave the preference in purchase entirely to the option of the consumers, they would be surprized at the additional revenue which this plain and equitable regulation would afford. It appears from the evidence of Mr. Jackson, a commissioner of Excise †, that the annual consumption of duty-paid British spirits, in the three kingdoms, is eleven millions of gallons. Now an additional duty of three shillings per gallon on this quantity of liquor, whether consumed in the shape of rum or in that of gin, would produce a yearly revenue of 1,650,000l. Exclusive of this powerful addition to our Treasury-receipts, advantages of a different nature would ensue; our shipping interest would be gratified by the employment of two hundred additional merchantmen in the West India trade; a farther check would be imposed on illicit distillation in Ireland; an effectual remedy would be at last discovered for the sufferings and complaints of our planters; and, which is still more important, the disadvantages to our landholders and farmers from the disuse of corn-spirit would be only imaginary. These classes, however, are so inveterately wedded to opposite sentiments, and the attention of our public men is so much engrossed with war and foreign politics, that we dare not be sanguine in the expectation that the country will be placed, at an early period, in possession of the benefits which we have enumerated. At the same time, it is due to the spirit of impartial discussion to acknowlege that the home-distillery would suffer greatly, and must be indemnified at the public charge: but the expence of this indemnity would be trifling in comparison with the increase of revenue. On a future occasion, it is probable that we may return to this interesting topic, and enter on a proof of the opinion that the alteration would be productive of no real injury to the landed interest: but at present we take leave of it by inviting those who treat the results of political economy as mere theory, to reflect on the magnitude of the revenue which would result from this simple equalization, and to say whether a similar fund can be derived from any other quarter without material prejudice to the national industry.

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* Evidence of Mr. Jackson, Appendix to the Committee of 1808, page 52.

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* Evidence before the Committee, 1808, of Mr. D. Montgomerie, and Mr. Thomas Smith.

† Ibid, p. 54.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1811.

MINERALOGY.

Art. 17. *Outlines of an Attempt to establish a Knowlege of Extraneous Fossils, on Scientific Principles.* In Two Parts. By William Martin, F.L.S. Author of Figures and Descriptions of Petrifactions collected in Derbyshire, &c. 8vo. pp. 280. 8s. Boards. White and Co.

As this treatise is strictly elementary, and consists chiefly of technical terms, definitions, and proposed arrangements, we despair of conveying any adequate notion of its merits even to our scientific readers; because the shortest tabular exposition of the author's plan would still occupy more room than would be compatible with our ideas of distributive justice. While, however, we beg leave to refer the curious to the original publication, we are happy to announce that, under a modest title, it bespeaks much accurate observation and thinking; and that it unfolds, with perspicuity and precision, a series of rules, or canons, by which all the species of organized relics, hitherto observed in the mineral kingdom, may be duly stationed, and recognized. In the performance of this important task, Mr. Martin has triumphed over many and formidable difficulties: but we regret to observe that he can boast of no victory over the printer, or the *devil*, who has contrived to corrupt his good works by divers wicked *impressions.*

BULLION-QUESTION.

Art. 18. *Hints from Holland*; or, Gold Bullion as dear in Dutch Currency as in Bank-notes, in a Letter to two Merchants. By A. W.

A. W Rutherford. 8vo. pp. 90. 3s. 6d. Richardson. 1811.

This is on the whole a singular performance. The author is by no means deficient in a knowlege of the particular department of the subject which he has undertaken to discuss, but he is singularly unfortunate as to clearness and precision of style. By way of mending this matter, also, he introduces now and then some Dutch idioms; a peculiarity of diction, which it does not often fall to the lot of English reviewers to remark in the works that are submitted to their examination. His principal argument is that the rise of gold bullion has not been confined, as the Bullion Committee maintain, to this country, but has extended to the Continent of Europe; and he contends that a permanent transit of gold to the Continent has taken place, without reference to the rates of exchange, or the value of our bank-paper. He exhibits a table (p. 26) of the comparative value of gold-bullion in London and in Amsterdam during twenty years, from 1791 to 1810; the most remarkable point in which is that in 1809 the mark of gold rose to the value of four hundred and twenty six guilders in silver, being ten per cent. above the rate of the preceding year. Reasoning from this foundation, and comparing our mint-price with its equivalent in Dutch-currency, Mr. Rutherford contends that in this country no depreciation of bank-paper exists, gold having risen as much above silver in Holland as it has risen above bank-notes among us: — such at least we conceive to be his meaning: but his diffuse and indefinite phraseology has a tendency to leave his readers in no slight degree of uncertainty. His various arguments resolve themselves, we apprehend, into the acknowleged fact of gold having for several years gained in relative value on silver. This comparative rise is maintained by Mr. Bosanquet, (p. 34.) who animadverts severely on the Committee for having stated that the rise in the market-price of silver had nearly corresponded to that of the market-price of gold, when in fact a difference of seven per cent. prevailed between them*.

After having discussed what may be properly called the bullion-part of the question, Mr. Rutherford proceeds to the commercial part, and dwells on the disadvantage resulting to the exchange from the heavy freights which we have paid to foreigners during the last three years, and from the great delay in obtaining payment for our goods sent to the Continent. The neutral shipping resorting to this country was, in the years 1808 and 1809, as follows:

Sailed from British ports - -	year 1808	year 1809
with cargoes - -	878	2404
Arrived in do. with do. - -	1670	4146

We were curious to know whether the stoppage of the American trade with the Continent had occurred to this writer as one of the causes of the derangement of the exchange; and, when we had looked in vain over the chief part of the pamphlet, we found in the last page an explicit declaration that 'political causes acted the more energetically against us, because the Americans, whose favourable balances with the Continent had enabled them to become the purchasers of the bills of Europe upon England, to the extent of *five millions per annum*, were extinct in the system and *hors de combat*.'

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* Mr. Merle's Evidence, Appendix, Bullion-Report.

Art. 19. *The Speech of Randle Jackson, Esq.* delivered at the General Court of the Bank of England, held on the 20th September 1810, respecting the Report of the Bullion-Committee of the House of Commons; with Notes on the Subject of that Report. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Butterworth. 1811.

Mr. Jackson apologizes for the publication of his speech at so considerable an interval from its delivery, by alleging the mistakes which have appeared respecting it, as well with regard to the sentiments as to the numerical statements; and he says that the animadversions which have since been published will be considered as calling for the notes which accompany the text. On perusing the pamphlet, we find it to contain the substance of Mr. Jackson's speech, expressed in the third person, with reasons explanatory of his opinions, occasionally introduced into the text, and at other times conveyed in the form of notes: but though we remark no omission of consequence, we certainly observe a considerable fall of tone from that of the newspaper-edition of the harangue. We have always considered the confidence evinced in Mr. Jackson's speech, and the evasive appearance of Mr. Whitmore's evidence before the Bullion-Committee, as the two great errors committed on the side of the Bank. The former had the look of putting the Bullion-Committee at defiance, while the latter was calculated to give rise to a suspicion that the Bank were desirous of throwing a veil of mystery over their transactions; and to judge from the altered character of Mr. Jackson's speech as it now stands, we might be led to conclude that this gentleman had become conscious of the presumption which it displayed in its former shape. The insertions in the text of the address, as now republished, consist of extracts from the evidence before the Committee, and of passages calculated to support Mr. J.'s assertions; and the notes contain explanations and arguments to a similar effect. Mr. J. enters (p. 28) into a demonstration of the solidity of the Bank, and of its competency to do a great deal more than pay its engagements; a course of reasoning which we cannot help regarding as wholly superfluous, because no well-informed person entertains a doubt on the subject. He acknowleges (p. 31.) the truth of Mr. Huskisson's remark that the average balance of government-money in the hands of the Bank is ten millions: but he alleges that it is not fair to dwell on the whole of this amount as having given the public any recent title to a correspondent allowance from the Bank, there having always been a balance, (though not so large,) and the public having long ago received equivalent considerations for it.

Two passages in the present production meet our entire concurrence: the statement (p. 39.) of the mercantile ruin that would follow that contraction of issues to which the Bank would be obliged to resort by an order to resume cash-payments under present circumstances; and the acknowlegement, (p. 44.) on the other hand, that a return to cash-payments should on no account be delayed after the state of political affairs is so far altered as to render it practicable. In other points, we are not so fortunate as to coincide with Mr Jackson's opinions. He is a believer in the notion that the enemy are seriously at work on a plan to draw our specie out of the country; and he ventures to answer for Dr. Smith that, had that writer lived in the present day, he would have laid down a similar doctrine for the conduct of Banks under the Restriction-Bill as under the system of cash-payments!

Art. 20. *Short Statement of the Trade in Gold Bullion;* shewing the true Causes of the general Scarcity and consequent high Price of that precious Metal; also demonstrating that the Notes of the Bank of England are not depreciated. Second Edition, enlarged. By John Theodore Koster, Esq., Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon. 8vo. pp. 119. 3s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

We are induced to notice the second edition of this pamphlet, (the first of which was reviewed in the January Number, p. 111.) on account of the author having now put his name to it, as well as because he has added several comments on publications which fell into his hands after his first edition was printed; viz. those of Mr. Bosanquet, Mr. Lyne, and Mr. Thornton, but more particularly that of Mr. Hill, on which he animadverts at some length. He concludes by making a few remarks on our observations on his first edition. — The general object of these strictures is to enforce his favourite notion that our pecuniary embarassments, now as well as in 1797, are to be ascribed, not to the balance of payments and course of exchange, but to a diminution of the stock of gold; a diminution caused, he imagines, by the double operation of reduced supply from the mines, and increased consumption in manufacture. These ideas are very natural to one who has been much engaged in the trade of bullion, and little accustomed to investigate the principles of commerce. Had Mr. Koster been more intimately conversant with the latter, we are inclined to think that he would not attempt to account for the present state of our money-system by the circumstance of a reduced stock of gold in the market of the world.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 21. *The Lay of the Last Minstrel Travesty.* 8vo. 9s. Boards. Colburn. 1811.

We should not perhaps have introduced even the title of such a book as the present into our pages, had we not wished to mark with our early and decided censure the publication of as gross a compound of vulgarity, ignorance, dullness, and indecency, as we remember to have disgraced the press of our country.

Art. 22. *The Caledonian Comet.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dwyer. 1810.

This is a very different attack on the merits of the same author, whose works are scandalized in the unworthy piece of ribaldry just mentioned. The present little satire has a short advertisement prefixed to it, which sensibly explains its design:

'The author of the following trifle was in hopes that some able writer would have come forward to check the progress of false taste, which has so long prevailed in works of literature. The mysterious horrors of those romances, which, a few years ago, to the surprize of all men of sense, made a great noise, produced so many ridiculous imitations that the evil has at length cured itself: they seem to have sunk into the utmost contempt; and are now abandoned even by the manufacturers of novels for circulating libraries, who probably find private scandal a more saleable commodity. At present the *Old Ballad* style of poetry appears to be equally in fashion; and requires a stronger corrective, as it has obviously misled men of real talents and knowledge. There can be no occasion to apologize for the trifle now offered to the public; as the same motives which render it our duty to support the national interests, ought to induce us to be attentive to the credit of the national taste. The author would have introduced in his text the names of several other living poets, whose talents do honour to their country; but that he was afraid of exposing himself to the charge of having adopted the policy on which he has animadverted in the following lines, as one of the means to make a work circulate.'

This last sentence will be understood by a reference to the succeeding passage. Having censured Walter Scott's fondness for

'A laboured show of herald's lore,'

the author remarks,

'But still, amid this musty roll,
Discreetly scatter'd through the whole,
We find a heap of ancient names
Of force to catch weak lords and dames,
And make them spread the works that praise
Their boasted sires of former days' &c. &c.

We cannot, however, agree with this satirist in the censure which he bestows on a very old and authorized custom of poetry. If Virgil celebrates the ancestors of the noble families existing in his own days at Rome, why may not Walter Scott have the same privilege in England? That we have too much *mere* heraldry, and too frequent a display of *uninteresting* antiquarian knowlege on all subjects, in this popular writer, are assertions which we ourselves have often made: but his allusions to the predecessors of the living great we hold to be perfectly unexceptionable.

On other points,—such as the ill-judged choice of a hero in Marmion, &c &c.,—points on which we have fully expressed our opinions,—the present objector does not materially differ from those opinions: but we cannot go so far as he does in condemning the heresies of this vigorous though lawless poet. Take him for all in all, he is, as the satirist allows,

——— 'gifted with a native flame,
And could have reached a noble height,
Had taste and judgment track'd his flight.'

As to the other living poets herein commended, we entirely coincide with the author in his praise of Giffard and Shee, but not in his high-flown encomium on some others.

Art. 23. *The Influences of Sensibility.* A Poem, in Three Parts. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Mawman, &c. 1810.

A very affectionate dedication to his father, and a modest advertisement, prepossessed us in favour of the author of this volume: but he must indeed be little acquainted with the poetry of his contemporaries, who thinks that Mrs. Hannah More, and Mr. Robins, are the only writers on sensibility!—Sensibility, falsely so called, has been laughed down from the parlour into the housekeeper's room: but there it still lingers,—shedding maudlin tears over the private bottle of that lady and the butler. In the back-parlours also of smaller grocers' shops, it still presides. School-boys and school-girls in country towns yet secretly foster this enemy to their future steadiness behind the counter; and indigenous waiters at hotels in watering-places, when the season is over, hire their two-penny-worth of sensibility from the circulating library. We by no means intend to include the present author's volume among those which are likely to be perused on such occasions: it probably will claim a worthier station in the light hanging-shelves of the dressing-room, and is certainly the work of a writer who is superior to most preceding sentimentalists. We only suggest that his subject has been too much hackneyed and too much degraded of late years, in every manner, for the reader to avoid entertaining something like a prejudice against it; and good feelings suffer greatly by the hypocrisy which imitates them. That the present claimant is not devoid of some genuine right to our attention, the following lines will evince:

'Hail, heav'n-born souls! ye highly favour'd throng,
Who range the mazes of harmonious song:
Who, by the spirit of the muses taught,
Thro' utmost nature wing creative thought.
Hail, ye who breathe äerial trance around,
From soft according instruments of sound.
And ye, whose pencil Nature bade combine
The truth and vigour of her own design.
If lost th' illustrious record of your name,
And swept your works from being and from fame,
Sunk then were all the honours of mankind,
And dark the boundless universe of mind.'

We could specify several usages of words in a sense not sufficiently precise throughout this poem, and many tautologous and feeble sentences.—More severe studies, and the real business of life, should correct that selfish luxury of the imagination, which in these pages seems to delight in dwelling on fictitious scenes of melancholy. No man will be fit for action, who really indulges such dreams as these:

'Next incidental Pleasure's pensive train
The lone employment of the mind sustain;
With all their casual interests they throng,
And Solitude's illusive hour prolong.'

This is sickly; and too much of the same sort of indolent 'sensibility' occurs in a very short composition. We recommend some honourable and useful occupation, as a corrective of such idle feelings, to this ingenious author.

Art. 24. *Caleb Quotem, and his Wife!* an Opera. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Richardson.

Mr. Henry Lee, manager of the theatres of Taunton, Barnstaple, Wells, Dorchester, Bridgewater, &c. &c. here brings a charge of grand larceny against Mr. George Colman, (of facetious reputation,) for having stolen the hero of the above farce, together with a whole scene of comic dialogue, and most daringly inserted the said hero and scene into " the Review, or Wags of Windsor," a dramatic composition which bears the name or one of the names of the last mentioned playwright. If Mr. Lee's dates are correct, his charge is clearly made out; and all the " paint, poetry, and putty" of Caleb Quotem are exclusively his own! but *non nostrum est tantas componere lites.*—We find a whimsical song, which would overcome the most stubborn resistance of laughter, in this extravaganza of buffoonery. It begins,

> ' In sweet poetic chime
> Of Milton I learnt rhyme,' &c. &c.

Absurd as Mr. Lee has made himself, he is kept in countenance by many more favoured dramatists of the day, whose merits equally rest on the sole basis of punning and alliteration.

Art. 25. *The Metamorphosis of Sona;* a Hindu Tale, with a Glossary, descriptive of the Mythology of the Sastras. By John Dudley, Vicar of Sileby in Liecestershire. Crown 8vo. Boards. Black and Co. 1810.

Were it not for the glossary, this poem would really be harder than Greek to most of our readers. It commences thus:

> ' Honour to thee, Ganesa, sapient lord!
> But next be thou, Bhavani, most ador'd,
> Or if Nerbudda's name thou deigns't to bear,
> Nerbudda's praises gladly we declare.'

Ganesa is the son of Siva, one of the three personages of the Hindu triad. Siva, our older acquaintance, is the personification of the destructive power; Vishnu, of the preserving power; and Brahmé, of the creative power:—but this triad does not seem to bear any proper analogy (as the author observes,) to the Christian Trinity; because the three personages of which it is composed are all created deities, and of an order confessedly inferior to the supreme Brahmé, the first great cause of all things. In Sanscrit, these three deities are called the Trímurti; that is, the three forms; meaning the three stages through which all created beings pass. Bhávani is a goddess, and the wife of Siva. The Nerbudda, and the Sona, are two of the principal rivers in India.——Scarcely do we meet with a line in this little poem that does not require as much annotation as the above, for the generality of readers:—but our poets are every day making us more familiar with the mythology of the Hindus. The present volume is so full in its illustrations of that mythology, that we might almost recommend it as a text-book in the lower departments of study at the East-India-College. It cannot as yet hope for any wide circulation; because, comparatively speaking, but few poetical travellers will yet wish to journey

'Where towers the Omerc'handac, sacred height,
For many an age Nerbudda's fond delight;
Not more could Indra golden Merú love
Or Chrishna rural Goverdhén approve.'

Art. 26. *The Associate Minstrels*. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Conder. 1810.

What personage may our readers suppose the authors of the following couplet to be addressing?

'Still, Oh! thou friend of peace and wisdom's nurse,
May I with thee and innocence *converse?*'

The personage is Silence; who in this *conversation* must certainly surpass even the Irishman's echo. We, however, decline any farther intercourse with her or her associate minstrels, than will suffice to remark that the vignette in the title-page, engraved by Isaac Taylor, from a drawing by Isaac Taylor, jun. is a most extravagant burlesque of pyramidical grouping; and that we felt an unfeigned pleasure in hearing the associate minstrels say, at the end of their volume,

'We sigh and bid the tuneful choir
A sad,—a long,—a last farewell!'

Art. 27. *Solomon; a* Sacred Drama. Translated from the German of Klopstock. By Robert Huish. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hatchard.

The translator of this drama dedicates his work to Mrs. Hannah More, in the loftiest terms of panegyric. He then proceeds, in his preface, to pronounce a very ambiguous opinion on the merits of Klopstock, and remarks that this poet has been neglected in England, while very inferior writers of his own country have been encouraged. This may be true, for we are not disposed to think highly of German literature: but what must we think of Klopstock himself? if the following account of him be even in part correct, and we are decidedly of opinion that it is. The language of the first sentence is rather extraordinary:

'Many, it is certain, are deterred, *not only from the perusal, but from the translation* of the works of Klopstock, by the extreme difficulty of the undertaking, arising from the singularity of his stile; from his licentious use of compound words; and the roughness of his rhythm; and the obscurity which he throws over his ideas, by his gross innovations of the established rules of the German language. His figures sometimes *border on the ridiculous*. Shakespeare calls thunder the artillery of heaven; but Klopstock attempts to surpass Shakespeare, and calls it the "ten-thousander of the Almighty?'— 'Conciseness appears to be his sole study; and the sense is often sacrificed or rendered obscure to obtain it. As a proof of this assertion, it is only necessary to examine his examples of the conciseness of the German language in opposition to the English; when it must be allowed that, by the coinage of a few compound words, and a harsh a harsh metre, to which he may truly lay the claim of being the parent, he has succeeded in comprizing in two lines, what in English is expressed in five: but at the same time it would be a difficult task to extract the same meaning from them.'

Mr. Huish goes on to observe that Klopstock is little known in England as a poet, excepting from an unfaithful and spiritless translation of the first fifteen books of his Messiah. The first four books of the original contain passages (he thinks) which are not to be equalled for sublimity in any antient or modern work: — but we suspect, to use a humble phrase, that in this inordinate eulogy the translator's "swans are geese." After having observed 'that the episodes in this poem are in general too prolix, and often unaptly introduced; and that they have so little connection with the main purport of the work, that were they to be wholly omitted it would prove rather beneficial to that work than a loss;' after all these objections to Klopstock's judgement, taste, and genius, he adds what we conceive to be the climax of censure: 'the reader must be possessed of an uncommon share of perseverance and patience who can peruse the twenty books of the Messiah without feeling *ennui*.' It will not serve as a palliative to this severe criticism, to say that 'the work is on the whole worthy of the renown which it has obtained; and will ever remain a monument of the transcendant genius of its author;' because this remark is contradicted by what precedes, and still more by what follows it: 'he who can peruse the twentieth book without being weary of the endless repetitions of Hosannahs and Hallelujahs, must have the patience of the author himself. It has been observed, that there are so many Hallelujahs in this book that it is supposed the author had contracted for editing the whole psalter of the cherubs.'

The translator then gives us some remarks by Klopstock himself, on his two dramas of Solomon and the Death of Adam; and he concludes by assuring his readers of his consolation, in reflecting 'that he has instilled no poison into the youthful mind; and that his endeavours have been directed to the promotion of religion and virtue:' thus implying, we presume, that such has not been the effect of the translations from Schiller and Kotzebue. We believe, however, that nothing but taste has been injured by those translations; and that no virtue but patience will be exercised by the present. The play is dull beyond toleration; and although Solomon himself had written it, none but Job could have perused it throughout, with a perfect command of temper.

We select one of the best passages: —

'Heman, Solomon's friend, comes to bid him a dying farewell.

'*Solomon.* Thou shalt not bid farewell.

'*Heman.* Not bid farewell?
The heart will do it, tho' the speech may fail.
That heart, which often in the midnight hour
Has with the throes of death tumultuous beat —
But from my friends, and thee I will conceal
The torments I endur'd; and, like the grave,
Which closely hides the horrors of corruption,

Will I be silent. I did not suppose,
On that bless'd day on which our friendship sprung,
That were I in the grave before thee laid,
That I should leave thee in thy present state,
A state too dreadful for my lips to speak,
From God estranged.
' *Solomon.* Heman, thou hast declar'd
That scarce a breath of thee remains on earth,
I pray thee, then, — shorten it not for me,' &c. &c.

Art. 28. *The Old Bard's Farewell,* a Poem. 4to. 2s. Clarke. 1811.

When Mr. Jerningham presents this poem to the public as ' the last labour of declining age',—as ' the milder fragrance of a winter-flower',—we seem to be required by a principle of politeness, and regard to an old friend, to be complimentary rather than critical, and to part with him, as he wishes to part with us, on good terms. We will not, therefore, receive the ' Old Bard' with a cynical phiz, nor carp at little blemishes which our investigating habits will not allow us to pass unobserved: but we shall congratulate Mr. J. on the amiable sentiments which his muse has cherished, and on the loyal and patriotic wishes which he breathes forth in this his closing song. If, ' in the gay season of impetuous youth,' Mr Jerningham was seduced by the writings of Voltaire into the paths of infidelity, he rejoices that ' Truth recalled him to her hallowed bower.' Like a real Christian, he contemplates with heart-felt satisfaction the downfall of the Inquisition and the abolition of the Slave-trade; and when he turns his eyes to Great Britain, they are lifted up in prayers for her security and amelioration.—Having in his " Alexandrian School *" expressed his sentiments relative to certain doctrines of the Church, he here poetically addresses the bishops on the subject of its farther reformation, and urges the clergy at large to the discharge of their duty:

' Ye high-exalted pastors of the realm,
Whose skillfull hands direct the sacred helm,
Whose spotless mind with wisdom's lore is fraught,
Whose white investment figures heav'nly thought,
Your awful task invariably pursue,
To your tremendous duty dare be true.

' 'T is yours ye leaders of the holy train,
To guard with jealous eye th' intrusted fane:
'T is yours to perfect with a *gradual* hand
What the first great Reformers boldly plann'd.
From the blessed dome undauntedly efface
Each mark'd deformity, each fancied grace,
The borrowed columns of the Roman pile,
Each ling'ring semblance of the elder style.

' Still may the sainted Ark secure remain
From the defiling touch of hands profane:

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* See our Review, Vol. lix. N. S. p. 32.

Through all her progress may she ever own
The unremitting sanction of the Throne!
As on one stem two kindred flow'rs arise,
And breathe their blended incense to the skies,
Together smile beneath the cheering gale,
Together droop beneath the batt'ring hail:
Thus the two sacred forms of Church and State
Must ever join in one involving fate,
Glow in one sun, and with one grief consume,
One mind, one heart, one peril, and one tomb.

'Ye village-priests, Religion's humbler band,
With zeal inspir'd, around her altar stand;
To her pure shrine, affectionately bear
The tears of widows, and the poor man's prayer.
Oh, steal once more Promethean fire from Heav'n,
Praise-worthy theft, assur'd to be forgiv'n:
An higher strain of energy assume,
Nor be like statues bending o'er a tomb.'

To the tune of "*O save my country, Heav'n!*" this farewell concludes:

'Oh England! oh my country! favor'd isle
Inur'd to bask in Heav'n's resplendent smile!
While, ever active and profusely kind,
Th' affection of our God is unconfin'd,
While in broad cataracts it show'rs on you,
Ah! let not yours ascend in gentle dew:
On Virtue's wing to higher flight arise,
Deserve your bliss, and vindicate the skies:
Of that fall'n edifice which Europe plann'd,
You like a solitary column stand:
Blind to the birth which pregnant time awaits,
Awfully safe, amidst the wreck of states.'

If we were disposed to be fastidious, we could object to the last line of this extract, and to the poet's *grappling* a *dream* to his *heart*, at p. 8.

Art. 20. *Lines addressed to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales*, on his being appointed Regent. By Philopatria, jun. 8vo. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

How blind must be the vanity of Philopatria, jun. if it could lead him to suppose, for a moment, that a Prince possessing a highly cultivated taste could be flattered by such effusions as his muse has here poured forth! In the Regent he sees a patron of poets, and their golden age is supposed to be arrived:

'No more shall poets on rude mattrass lie
Unhonour'd drag a life,—unnoticed die:'

but what is this to Philopatria? for whatever beds of down, or *beds of roses*, the Prince may order for true poets, a straw mattress would fully repay this eulogist.

NOVELS.

Art. 30. *The Lady of the Lake;* a Romance, founded on the Poem so called by Walter Scott, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 10s. Boards. Tegg. 1810.

In the 21st article of this Review, we have mentioned with reprobation an avowed travesty, in rhime, of Mr. Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel*; and the present volumes offer an *un*-intentional travesty of the same poet's *Lady of the Lake*, in prose which is sometimes poetically bombastic and sometimes inanimate. We have rarely seen a more audacious attempt to pirate a work by merely altering its style; and to impose on the public by arranging the title so as to make Mr. Walter Scott appear at first sight to be the author of the book.—The story remains the same in all material points, and the sentences are often changed only so far as to break the rhime; though even this is not always completely effected. In the process of mutation, also, some notable blunders are occasionally committed; as, for instance, Vol. I. p. 130. lines 4 and 5.

Art. 31. *The Shipwreck*, or Memoirs of an Irish Officer and his Family. By Theodore Edgeworth, Esq. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. sewed. Tegg. 1811.

Among the various speculations of the book-making tribe, few are more provoking to the reader than the trick of assuming the names of approved authors, in order to obtain attention for worthless publications. Those of Hamilton, Radcliffe, Burney, and Edgeworth, have been thus unwarrantably employed; and the writer who now calls himself Theodore Edgeworth, and who is certainly not the well-known Mr. Edgeworth of Ireland, has perhaps as little title to the name of that family as he certainly possesses to a share of its literary celebrity. His novel contains a defence of duelling, which might be mischievous if it were better written; and the hero displays his liveliness of spirit by engaging in riots, and signalizes the goodness of his heart by becoming the dupe of a man whom he despises. The author's style, also, is always inelegant, and sometimes bombastic; he talks of 'the heart being electrified by the twitch of apprehension,' and of its being 'decoyed to a pinnacle of short-lived jubilation.' In a word, we have found nothing in his work which could lead us either to excuse or to credit the imposition which seems to be attempted in the title-page.

MILITARY *and* NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 32. *The Rights of the Army vindicated*; in an Appeal to the Public on the Case of Captain Foskett. To which is subjoined the whole of Captain F.'s Correspondence with the respective Commanders in Chief (H. R. H. the Duke of York and Sir David Dundas) and also with the Officers successively command-in October, after the junction of Regnier's division, at 80,000 men. This was before the arrival of Drouet and Gardanne, whose corps have probably done somewhat more than replace the blanks caused, during the winter, by sickness and the sword. Of the strength of Lord W.'s lines at Torres Vedras, the writer speaks (p. 36. and 38.) in the language of hope and confidence, but without presuming to anticipate the result of the contest in Portugal. Whatever that may be, 'the maintenance of Lord Wellington's position,' he says, 'will operate as a most important diversion in favour of that part of the peninsula, by detaining in front of Lisbon, in a state of comparative inactivity, and in a certain degree of deterioration, an immense French army, a large proportion of which might otherwise be employed either in disarming or reducing to subjection the remainder of Portugal, in occupying and securing the north-western provinces of Spain, in reducing the remaining forces of Catalonia, in making a decisive attack in Valencia, or finally, in supporting, perhaps terminating successfully, the siege of Cadiz.' This is not an exaggerated picture of the advantages derived from the stand made by his Lordship: but the misfortune is that they have not been turned to good account by the Spaniards, nor, as we fear, by our own government, since we now hear for the first time of Spanish volunteers being sent over and taught the exercise by British serjeants in Majorca; that is, we are now beginning to make of that island the use which we ought to have made of it two years ago.—The author has very properly abstained from entering into the discussion of any political question, such as the propriety of employing a British force in the peninsula, or of undertaking to pay and officer a large proportion of the Portuguese army; and he has made it a rule to confine himself to the consideration of military topics.

ARTS, &c.

Art. 35. *The Speculum, or Art of Drawing in Water-Colours*; and Instructions for sketching from Nature; comprising the whole Process of a Water-Coloured Drawing, familiarly exemplified in Drawing, Shadowing, and Tinting a complete Landscape in all its progressive Stages; with Directions for compounding and using Colours, Indian Ink, Bister, &c. By J. Hassell. 12mo. 2s. Tegg.

We can recommend this little manual to all those who cultivate the pleasing art of landscape-drawing. It conveys, in a concise and perspicuous manner, good directions for sketching from Nature, and completing the drawing with taste and effect. We wish, however, that, though the lessons are addressed to a pupil, the writer had avoided all imitation of the cookery-books in his style, and had not talked of tinting '*your* clouds' and '*your* trees,' as Mrs. Glasse talks of skinning "*your* eels" and cleaning "*your* calf's head!"

Art. 36. *Domestic Management*; or, the healthful Cookery-book. To which is prefixed, a treatise on Diet, as the surest Means to preserve Health, long Life, &c. with many valuable Observations on the nutritious and beneficial, as well as the injurious Effects of various kinds of Food; also Remarks on the wholesome and pernicious Modes of Cookery. Intended as an Antidote to modern Errors therein. To which is added, the Method of treating such trifling medical Cases as properly come within the Sphere of Domestic Management. By a Lady. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Crosby and Co. 1810.

Although it be true that our health depends very much on our food, and that by a proper attention to what we eat and drink we may avoid or alleviate many diseases, still we are of opinion that no cordial co-operation will ever be effected between the physician and the cook, such as is attempted in this treatise. The grand objects of each party are so different that we can never expect a hearty union. Besides, few if any persons are so far skilled in the two arts, of compounding drugs and making ragouts, as to render them competent to this double kind of duty. Probably, not one member of the Royal College of Physicians, though they may all love good eating, could prescribe a recipe for a soup or a fricassee; and the fair author of the work now before us evidently does not understand medicine nor physiology. Her dishes, indeed, judging from the description which is given of them, would be very savoury and delicious; and some advice with respect to œconomics is interspersed, which, though rather trite, is very judicious. If this lady would *board* our corps for a year, and in that time run a course through all the *compositions* which it describes, we might give a more practical opinion of them, and perhaps be put into such a good humour that we should more heartily recommend her *literary* cookery.

EDUCATION.

Art. 37. *Thoughts and Remarks on establishing an Institution for the Support and Education of unportioned respectable Females.* 8vo. pp. 248. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

"*To a nunnery.*" — No. Thanks to Providence, the age of nunneries is gone, and we should be truly sorry to see them revived under the pretext of rectifying the abuses which have crept into the fashionable boarding-schools in the vicinity of the metropolis. Mrs. Whitford, the author of these Thoughts, writes from a good motive: but in point of composition her work is very defective, and her suggestion is very romantic. This lady seems to know something of the present mode of education in boarding-schools; and for her exposure of its evil tendency, parents are much obliged to her: but we cannot think that her plan of a Protestant Nunnery in Yorkshire, on a large scale, consisting of a hundred females, among whom no male is to be admitted, excepting a chaplain, *for Sunday duty*, would be any great improvement on the existing boarding-school system. Mrs. W. grants that the matron must have *Argus' eyes*: but if the matron could employ Argus himself, this hundred-eyed gentleman would find, from a little experience, that he had not eyes enough to *look after* a hundred young women even in a Protestant Nunnery. Large establishments are always unfriendly to virtue; and if the boarding-school plan is to be abolished, on the ground of its baneful effects on the majority of females, especially on those in the middle classes, it is better to revive the old fashioned mode of day-schools, in which the children of the neighbourhood were educated, during the hours of study, and dismissed in the evening to the bosom of their respective families. For the females of nobility and gentry, private education is recommended. In this way, the different classes of society would be kept distinct; and the daughters of little tradesmen would not be brought up to ape their superiors, to despise their parents behind the counter, and to dream of coaches and drawing-rooms.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 38. *A Dissertation upon the Logos of St. John,* comprehending the Substance of Sermons preached before the University of Oxford. By Richard Laurence, LL D., Rector of Mersham, Kent. 8vo. pp 83. 3s. Rivingtons.

Could the preface to St John's Gospel be proved to have been the *addendum* of a subsequent age, Divines both of the trinitarian and the unitarian schools would be relieved from considerable embarrassment; since, on the hypothesis of either sect, that composition is not altogether free from difficulties. Though, however, it may be regarded by some persons as aukwardly spliced and introduced for the sake of the term λογος, *Logos,* which does not afterward occur in the evangelist's narrative, to designate the Saviour, it ought to be observed that we have not the authority of MSS. to justify the suspicion of its having been interpolated: so that critics on both sides are reduced to the necessity of ascertaining its origin and precise meaning. It will require some acumen to discover the exact line of demarcation between the two parties in this controversy; one sect contending for a metaphorical personification of the *Logos,* and the other for its absolute personality: but whether this term signifies a divine attribute or the divine essence, it is equally impossible to conceive that either could literally have been *made flesh:* so that both trinitarians and unitarians are compelled to the adoption of a figurative sense. As the former does not maintain that the Divine Essence, or a real subsistence in the Divine Nature, was actually *converted* into flesh, any more than the latter insists that the Divine Wisdom was thus converted, we cannot help thinking that the whole of the dispute is more in words than in substance; and that Dr. Laurence, with all his learning and ingenuity, will be found to have accomplished nothing material. Towards the conclusion of his dissertation, he calls on theological inquirers 'to look beneath the surface; not to take assertions on trust; not to exalt reason above revelation, nor their own opinion above both;' to the excellence of which advice we subscribe: but, as it is a sort of language usually found in the mouth of the adversary, the Doctor will not probably gain much by the adoption of it.

This learned divine first considers the supposed origin of the expression, in the next place discusses the different meanings which have been affixed to it, and, lastly, endeavours to ascertain the sense in which it was understood by the primitive Christians. Respecting the source of the term λογος, in the peculiar sense which must be affixed to it in the preface to St. John's Gospel, Dr. L. has brought together

gether the different opinions which have been advanced on the subject; some supposing it to have been borrowed from the מימרא דיי *memora dadonai*, “the word of the Lord,” of the Chaldee Paraphrasts; others, that it was adopted from the Rabbins and Platonic philosophers of the time, in the sense of *ratio*, *mens*, or *intelligentia*; others, that it was derived from the Gnostics; and others that it was suggested by Ps. xxxiii. 6. “by the word of the Lord were the heavens made,” &c. It is also stated that Schleusner, adverting to the frequent use of the rhetorical figure called Metonymy among the Jews, does not hesitate to translate λογος *teacher* in John i. 1., and in Luke iv. 36 — Having fairly detailed the different conjectures of the learned, Dr. L. abstains from a positive decision of preference; being more solicitous that the doctrine of Personality, which he *assumes as a fact*, should be included in the use of this term, than to assign its source to this or that quarter. He thus sums up the inquiry:

‘Whichsoever of these various suppositions we admit, whether we consider the term as used by the Evangelist metonymically, according to the characteristical genius of his native language, or as derived from the phraseology of the Gnostics; or whether, in conformity with the other conjectures, we choose to say, that it was suggested by a particular passage in the Psalms, or that it was a technical expression of Rabbinical usage at the time, or that it was evidently borrowed from the Chaldee Paraphrases, which were in equal estimation with Jews, and with Christians, still shall we assume the fact, that it is to be contemplated solely in a personal point of view, in a point of view which represents it as indicative of an actual subsistence, and a real person.’

In the second chapter, Dr. Laurence states the question at issue between him and the Unitarians, to be ‘whether the term λογος, which has been usually regarded as the name of a divine person, can be supposed to mean nothing more than a divine attribute:’ but in the discussion of this question we cannot compliment him on the energy of his logic. To discountenance the notion of a metaphorical sense, or personified attribute, and to refute those who would translate λογος *Wisdom*, he observes, ‘we may indeed say, if we please, that the attribute *Wisdom* was in the beginning, and that she was in the beginning with God: but how can we with propriety assert, that she was God?’ ‘Can Deity be ascribed to an abstract quality?’ How could Dr. L., who had just before been pointing out the frequent use of metonymies among the Jews, hazard such a question? If he admits that Wisdom may so far be personified, that *she* may be represented to have been in the beginning with God, she may, by a figure not less bold, be said to be God. With equal propriety we may assert that God is Wisdom, as that “God is Light;” though, in fact, we thus ascribe Deity to an abstract quality. The distinction which Dr. L. endeavours to make between the two forms of expression, “Goodness is God,” and “God is goodness,” is puerile; because the sense of both (and about *sense* and not *modes of expression* are we speaking,) is the same.

Dr. L. proceeds to charge his opponents with metaphorical incongruity of the most revolting kind, when they say that Wisdom was *made flesh*, &c.: but, as we have already remarked, this incongruity is not less glaring on his own hypothesis. No part of the Divine Essence can literally be converted into flesh, nor be made man; though both suppositions, in a figurative sense, may be maintained. Since, however, the author has laboured to establish his view of the subject in opposition to that of the Unitarians, we will not curtail his reasoning:

'Personify as we please, still must we find it difficult to explain, how a mere attribute can be supposed to have assumed our nature, and to have dwelt among us. Metaphor, it is true, may ascribe to an attribute a personal character and operation, but surely cannot represent it as becoming a real man, and a particular individual, without manifest absurdity. If, however, St. John be supposed only to mean, that the wisdom of God was illustriously displayed in Jesus Christ, would he, it may be observed, have expressed so incontrovertible a position in so singular a mode? Were it intended simply to affirm that a man appeared, eminently wise, to say that a divine attribute was made flesh, and, exhibiting the glory of God's only begotten Son, dwelt with us full of grace and truth, would be a species of figurative phraseology without a parallel. Besides, it is on both sides agreed, that by the term *flesh*, must be understood that, which is properly and truly man. Unless therefore the *Logos* here alluded to indicates something more than an attribute personified, something which possesses a real personality, how can actual manhood be predicated of it, without the substitution of an hypothesis more subtle, in its explication at least, than the hypothesis of the Docetæ. The Docetæ contended, that a celestial Spirit assumed the human form; the Unitarian, on the other hand, contends, that the wisdom of the Deity assumed actual humanity, and thus appears to convert an attribute into a substance. If, however, to avoid the idea of so preposterous a conversion, he argues, that the term *λογος*, which elsewhere signifies God's wisdom, signifies here a man, possessing a portion of that wisdom, to say nothing of his inconsistency in making the same expression import first the inspiring principle personified, and afterwards the person inspired, how will the proposition then stand? Will it not consist in the assertion, that a man endowed with divine wisdom was truly a man; an exposition, as harsh in its metaphor, and inconclusive in its meaning as the former? But let us suppose, according to the general persuasion, that the word always implies a person, one, who was the only begotten Son of God, participating in the Godhead, and every difficulty in the construction of the Apostle's language vanishes, every sentence admits an easy solution, exempt from all those intricacies and perplexities, which seem to render the Unitarian comment, not a simple illustration of divine truths, but an inexplicable knot of hyperbolical incongruities.'

Throughout the whole of these passages, Dr. Laurence appears to us to have exposed himself to the pointed animadversions of Unitarians; and to them we chearfully resign the task.

In the last chapter, which refers to the evidence of primitive antiquity, Dr. L. produces very little which helps to settle the dispute, though he seems confident that it was the opinion of Christians of the earliest period, that by the word λογος 'the Evangelist meant not to describe a metaphorical but a real person.'

This dissertation is reputable to the learned industry of the author, and contains much of that quality which is admired in an University, though it makes little impression elsewhere.

HISTORY.

Art. 39. *An Historical and Topographical Description of Chelsea and its Environs*; interspersed with biographical Anecdotes of illustrious and eminent Persons who have resided in Chelsea during the three preceding Centuries. By Thomas Faulkner, of Chelsea. 8vo. pp. 459. 15s. Boards. Egerton, &c.

We remember that, on the publication of Dr. Robertson's first historic labour, it was remarked to him that a history of Scotland was no very attractive subject. What, we should be glad to know, would then have been said of a history of the Charter-house[*], or of a history of Chelsea?—Mr. Faulkner appears to have entertained a prudent distrust of the degree of interest which the public might take in his performance, and has accordingly adopted the precaution of intrenching himself behind a list of subscribers. He has also had the good sense to affect nothing beyond the plain character of the historian of a suburb, and has been contented to fill his pages with the humble but useful matter arising from his inquiry, without seeking an adventitious importance from extraneous topics. The volume is composed of descriptions of the public buildings of Chelsea, with sketches of the lives of the eminent men who have successively resided in that village; and as Chelsea ranks among the oldest and pleasantest of the country-retreats around London, the list of remarkable persons who have had houses within its limits during the last century is very considerable. In the reign of Queen Anne, the number of dwellings in Chelsea was about 300, but they are now increased above seven-fold. The Dutchess of Mazarine, Sir Richard Steele, Dr. Atterbury, Dean Swift, Sir Robert Walpole, and Dr. Mead, all ranked among the occasional inhabitants of Chelsea; and a short notice is given of their lives, with a more extended account of two of the most eminent residents at Chelsea, Sir Thomas More and Sir Hans Sloane.—A map of Chelsea, as it stood in the year 1664, and several plates, are interspersed through the volume; which will not only be particularly acceptable to the inhabitants of that place, but will afford amusement and intelligence to the general reader.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 40. *The Life of Fenelon, Archbishop of Cambray*; compiled from original Manuscripts, by M. L. F. de Bausset, formerly Bishop of Alais, and translated from the French by William Mudford. 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1810.

The utmost gentleness of manners, a temper which nothing could disturb, perfect ingenuousness, eminent attainments, a sublime genius, exalted virtue, and elevated piety, created the singular interest which belonged to Fenelon when living, and which still surrounds his memory.

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[*] See our Number for August, 1809, p. 343.

Accident has prevented us from announcing, at an earlier period, the valuable addition made to our literary stores by the present translation of a book which we strongly commended in the Appendixes to our 57th, 58th, and 59th Volumes. It has been faithfully and very respectably executed: but who, that is acquainted with the charms of Fenelon's style, will be surprized at not finding these infused into the English version? Yet it occasionally manifests clear vestiges of them; so that readers of kindred feeling will discern something of them through the English dress, and will imagine more. It may be said, however, that the translation enables us to form a more just estimate of this highly distinguished and admired person, than the original, in which the numerous extracts from Fenelon's compositions render such an object difficult; because so completely does he by his eloquence possess himself of our minds, that we cannot readily discover a fault or an error with which he is chargeable. Yet faults he must have had, because he was a man: but his vice seems to have been an excess of virtue, and his heterodoxy an overstrained devotion. Alluding to the famous controversy between him and Bossuet, it was neatly said by Pope Innocent XII. "*Erravit Cameracencis excessu amoris Dei: peccavit Meldensis defectu amoris proximi.*" "The Archbishop of Cambray has erred from an excessive love of God: the Bishop of Meaux has sinned from want of a due love towards his neighbour."

The work before us will highly gratify all who delight to contemplate extraordinary worth and excellence; and, indeed, in interest and beneficial tendency, how few performances approach it! Having entered, however, so much into the detail of its merits in our review of the original, we are contented on the present occasion thus generally to attest its superior claims.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 41. *An Account of the Operations of the British Army*, and of the State and Sentiments of the People of Portugal and Spain, during the Campaigns of the Years 1808 and 1809. In a Series of Letters. By the Rev. James Wilmot Ormsby, A. M., Chaplain on the Staff, &c. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Carpenter.

Various accounts of Portugal and Spain, during the unfortunate campaigns of 1808 and 1809, have been before the public: but the general subject still possesses equal interest, though the military operations of that period are no longer attractive. Mr. Ormsby's details are intitled to perusal, and will afford entertainment; and though we speak of them at this distance of time, it is but just to him to observe that they appeared at a moment when the events to which they relate were yet fresh, and were the objects of universal curiosity.

Mr. Ormsby's professional situation enabled him to turn, whenever opportunity offered, from the bustling duties which occupied the soldier,

dier, to the more tranquil scenes of civil life: but he does not neglect the necessary record of military events; and he reports the various statements relative to Sir John Moore's conduct, with that fairness which agrees with his declaration that 'the principal actors in those momentous scenes were and are, to him, *nec beneficio nec injuriâ cogniti.*' The readers of Mr. Moore's *Narrative* of his brother's campaign * will see how ill founded were most of the cavils of the military critics in his army: who seemed to forget that, without being acquainted with the information (or *want* of information) which actuated him, they were pronouncing on steps which resulted from that cause.

Of Lisbon, an entertaining account is given in the first volume; and in speaking of the religious ceremonies of the inhabitants, Mr. Ormsby expresses a sentiment of liberality which is highly honourable to him, and corresponds with the general features of his character which his book presents. 'I have never,' says he, 'presumed to think any man, because he differed from me, a knave or a fool. The opinion may be erroneous, and yet the intention may be pure; and satisfied as I feel of the orthodoxy of my own creed, I should with extreme unwillingness subscribe to the doctrine, that the mistaken must necessarily be either hypocrites or dunces.'

Respecting female virtue at Lisbon, the author speaks in higher terms than we have been accustomed to hear: but on this subject, generally, we may remark that the experience of a married man in a black coat and that of a single man in a red coat may very considerably differ.

Mr. Ormsby gives an unfavourable opinion (p. 171.) of the political disposition of the Portuguese towards us; and he even thinks that, had the French conducted themselves with more moderation, 'particularly towards church-property, they would have been hailed as the deliverers of Portugal from an odious government.' — Subsequent events seem rather to militate with this judgment; and of the gentry and peasantry *in the provinces*, a different representation is given at p. 231. — Of the custom, among the peasants, of *thatching* themselves in winter, mentioned in our Number for October last, p. 161. the present writer also speaks; and he says that it is an indispenable protection against rains which 'for the last three days, (in November 1808) *without the intermission of a moment*, have poured more heavily than you have ever seen after a thunder-storm in England.'

As to the Spanish character, Mr. O. speaks variously at different times. On their entrance into Spain, our troops 'experienced a decided disinclination to receive them;' and our 'insolent *sang-froid*' and immovable slowness of the Don were most sensibly felt. At Salamanca, on the contrary, the 'reception was highly satisfactory;' and in the final retreat, again, the disappointment of the Spaniards rendered them insensible to the wants of the English troops, the urgency of which led the latter to excesses, and even gained for them the title of "*malditos ladrones*," *cursed robbers*.—'The religious prejudices' of the Spanish, the author says, 'are inveterate. It is not the opinion of partial bigotry, but the universal conviction, that the English are not

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[*] See Rev. Vol. lx. N.S. p. 69.

Christians; and when any officer announces himself as an Irishman, there is an immediate exclamation of pride and joy; "*Es Catolico, es Irlandes*;" and he is thenceforward treated with the warmest cordiality of friendship.' — Of the ladies, he remarks; 'the jealousy of husbands here is not without cause; and it is asserted that their vigilance is without effect.'

The University of Salamanca is praised for its architectural splendour: but its library is said to be very indifferently stored with any other books than those which relate to school-divinity, or canon and civil law. 'The authors in this country are not numerous. Greek is absolutely unknown, Latin confined to the Monks and Priests, French but little cultivated, and English not so much as thought of. Under these circumstances, and the grasp of the Inquisition, it ceases to be a wonder that there are so few books in circulation; and he who would revel in the delights of literature must have access to the libraries of the Dominicans, where all the wit, the genius, and the learning of Spain lie buried under the damning title of "*Libri prohibiti.*" — 'In this university *there are* 14 colleges, in which *there are* not at present one hundred students, most of them having joined the armies: till then *there were* above four hundred.' — The education of Irish students here, for future duty in their native country, excites some reflections from Mr. O. (himself an Irishman,) which bespeak the true Christian and the patriot.

The style of these letters is generally good, but much deformed by the frequent repetition of the phrases *there is, there are here*, &c. An Appendix contains military documents, orders, dispatches, &c.

Art. 42. *The Works of Henry Mackenzie, Esq.* Crown 8vo. 8 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

The admirers of *the Man of Feeling*, and of *Julia de Roubigné*, will be glad to hear that the author of those popular tales has been persuaded to revise a collective edition of his works; which is here presented to the public in eight neat volumes, and accompanied by a portrait of Mr. Mackenzie. They consist of the *Man of Feeling*, *Man of the World*, *Julia de Roubigné*, *Papers from the Mirror and Lounger*, *Miscellanies*, and *Poems and Dramas*. The latter occupy the last volume, and are chiefly the productions of the author's early days, now first published, and of which he himself speaks with modesty and distrust. We doubt whether they will attract equal praise with his prose-writings, but they discover both pleasing and energetic powers, and will be read with interest.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 43. *Reflections on the Shortness of Time*; suggested by the General Mourning for Her Royal Highness the Princess Amelia, and delivered at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, Nov. 11, 1810. By John Gardiner, D.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Art. 44. *Reflections on Mortality, suggested by the General Mourning*; preached at Worship-street, Finsbury-square, and at Leather-lane Chapel, Holborn, Nov. 11, 1810, on the Decease of Her Royal

Highness the Princess Amelia. With an Account of her Interment. By John Evans, A.M. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Sherwood and Co.

Two divines, one in the Establishment, and the other exercising his profession among Protestant Dissenters, on the same day directed the attention of their respective congregations to the same subject. Both were impressed with a desire of converting the recent death of the amiable and long-suffering Princess Amelia to some practical purpose; both laboured to awaken their hearers to a just estimate of life, and to a sense of their interests in the contemplation of death; and though their reflections on mortality cannot be new, the affecting circumstance under which they were suggested may serve to give them more than usual weight, by shewing that

> " *Pallida mors æquo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas*
> " *Regumque turres.*"——

Dr.G. in a plain forcible style, and Mr.E. in a discourse embellished with frequent scraps of poetry, comment on the shortness and uncertainty of life, and their views of the subject lead to the same practical results. If in Mr. E.'s sermon more display of reading and authorship be apparent, in that of Dr. G. we meet with more appropriate gravity.

Art. 45. *A Funereal Discourse*, occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Dr. Barnes, preached at Cross-street Meeting-House, in Manchester, 15th July, 1810. By John Yates. 8vo. 2s. Johnson and Co.

This sermon is indeed unusually long, but it is not tedious. As a specimen of funereal eloquence, it possesses no inconsiderable merit; and the *memoir* presents a well-drawn sketch of the deceased, who, we understand, merited by his active virtues the encomiums of the preacher and the tears of his flock. In the introductory remarks, which properly constitute the sermon, Mr. Yates has acquitted himself with ability; and his hearers must have been affected with the appositeness, solemnity, and beauty of his observations. He considers what effect the death of great and good men, in the midst of their usefulness and honours, is calculated to produce in respect to themselves and to survivors. Both views of this subject are, distinctly illustrated: but on the latter point he is peculiarly animated and happy. Before he commences his account of the deceased, and records his worth, Mr. Yates adverts to a truth which must have disposed his audience to prepare to follow their lamented pastor. 'As our most valuable connections on earth are dissolved, the love of life dissolves with them. The world in which we live becomes to us a land of strangers, and that to which we are going is the land peopled with our fathers, our kindred, and our friends.' Never was this sentiment expressed with a more affecting simplicity; and the heart which is bowed down with grief on the death of a dear friend, or relative, will feel consolation from the prospect which this reflection displays.

Dr. Barnes was born at Warrington Feb. 1, 1747, and died at Manchester, June 27, 1810. 'In him,' says Mr. Yates, 'religion lost a zealous advocate and a bright ornament.'

CORRES-

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from Mr. Capel Lofft, in which he appears as the *pedissequus* of *Horatianus*; to whose metrical remarks on our review of the *Musæ Cantabrigienses* we gave an answer in our last Number. We have now only to observe that a Cretic foot, (or one short syllable between two that are long,) with the conjunction *que* at the end of it, becomes in course a Ditrochæus; and to *such* a Ditrochæus we objected. For instance, "*Penduliqne*," the word in point. Mr. Lofft might as well have transcribed the whole of Horace's Alcaic Odes, as those to which he has referred, in proof of the third line of the Stanza being repeatedly closed with two Trochees; and indeed not a stanza can be found in which, by due division, and by allowing the last syllable of the verse to be common, this might not be shewn to be the case. How, then, could we guard against such a misconception of our meaning? Could we have imagined it possible, that our particular exclusion of *the Ditrochæus* "*Pendulique*" should be interpreted into a general anathema against Trochees? Or, if this were possible (which we hardly should have supposed) at first, could it be so after our answer to *Horatianus*, in which we not only said, but marked it in italics, *such* a word as "*Pendulique?*"

As to the other point to which Mr. Lofft alludes, the admission of modern proper names, Hellenized, into Greek Verse, it is entirely a matter of taste. We differ with him:—but *De Gustibus*, &c. A periphrasis, however necessary a note may be to explain it, we think is more elegant. It is an evil, we grant, but an evil, according to our notions, that is unavoidable in classical composition.

A second letter from *Horatianus* has reached us, but not in time to receive farther notice in this Number.

Mr. Flower, of Harlow, adverts to a passage cited by us in our last Appendix, p. 466, in which the author of the *Dictionnaire des ouvrages pseudonymes* observes that Moore's tragedy of *the Gamester* was deemed too violent to be performed on the French Theatre:—but, says Mr. F., 'during my residence at Paris in 1791, that drama was frequently acted, and I was once a spectator. It was got up in a superior manner to what it is on the English stage; and the parts were, in general, tolerably well performed: but as to the heroine of the piece, after having frequently admired, and I may add, been very much affected by the performance of our inimitable Siddons,—on beholding the Parisian actress, I could scarcely help exclaiming—"Oh! what a falling off is there!"

The truth of an opinion does not depend on its presumed tendency: yet our correspondent W. J. offers no other argument against the passage which he arraigns, than that Addison and Johnson would have written to little purpose if it contained a just observation. The whole is a question of fact. If he will interrogate nature carefully and extensively, he must unavoidably perceive that children exhibit, almost in the nurse's arms, decided traits of character. The cowardly can be distinguished from the courageous boy, the irascible from the phlegmatic, the cheerful from the gloomy, and the feelingly sympa-

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1811.

ART. I. *Mr.* Bruce's *Annals of the East India Company.*

[*Article concluded from the last Review, p.* 257.]

AFTER the copious remarks which we have made on the introductory parts and principal objects of this elaborate production, we shall pass over the remainder of the first chapter, which indeed contains very little that appears calculated to interest the reader, till we come to the *results*; — a list of propositions with which, as deductions from the preceding narrative, the author regularly concludes each chapter. As the passage would be rather too long to quote entire, we shall omit the first five of the propositions, which are of inferior interest, relating chiefly to foreign matters, — either to the concerns of the other European nations engaged in the Indian traffic, or to the state of the countries with which the intercourse was maintained.

‘ VI.—That though the charter of Queen Elizabeth distinctly defined the corporate and exclusive rights of the East India Company, the death of this wise sovereign, while their voyages were experimental only, exposed them to the varying policy of her successor; who, a stranger to the rising English commerce, introduced, by licences, the interferences of private merchants, or interlopers, contrary to the express terms of the Queen's charter: but this infraction of the Company's privileges was, in a few years, admitted, by King James, to be as unwise, as it was unjust; for, in 1609, he renewed the Company's charter, and made their exclusive privileges permanent: — that, on the basis of this charter, the first joint stock of the London Company was formed, to provide sufficient funds for four years, or four successive voyages, and Sir Thomas Roe, at the Company's expence, sent as the King's Ambassador to the Mogul: — that, in 1617-18, when the second Joint Stock was formed, the funds and equipments of the London Company excited the jealousy of the Dutch, who considered that this large stock, and proportionate equipments, would raise the English trade in the East Indies to the same height as their own,—an event which led to the treaty of 1619, and the appointment of a Council of Defence, constituted in such manner as to depress the trade and exertions of the London Company, and to become the source of those aggressions, which produced mutual complaints to their respective sovereignties, but did not terminate in any definitive arrangement; and this situation of the English and Dutch affairs in the East, led to the massacre at Amboyna: an outrage, reparation for which was not obtained, at the death of King James I.

‘VII.—That, though King Charles I., at his accession, and during the first years of his reign, not only attempted to obtain, by negotiation, redress from the States General, for the losses of the Company, but proceeded to retaliation on their homeward-bound ships, yet the rising factions in England lessened the authority of the Crown, and obliged the King to recede from those spirited measures, which the Company hoped would have procured them redress from the Dutch: — that, from the year 1630 to 1635, though the Company formed their third Joint Stock, and established regulations for the suppression of private traffic, the disputes between the King and the Parliament, not only prevented the increase of their trade, but left them still exposed to the oppressions of the Dutch: — that, from 1635 to 1638, the King encouraged, and granted licences to Courten's Association, which became a kind of second East India Company; the equipments and factors of which, from being under no regulations, not only invaded every branch of the London Company's trade in the East, but exposed their servants and their property, to imprisonment and seizure by the native powers: — that in 1638-39, the Privy Council, aware of these destructive interferences, proposed a coalition, between the East India Company and this Association; and though the King, in 1640, offered to revoke Courten's licence, and to confirm the charter and privileges of the Company, his necessities, in 1641, obliged him to seize their imports of pepper, for which he granted them the only security, which his hard situation would allow him to offer: — and that, during the whole of the calamitous period, from 1642 to 1649, the Company were obliged to depend on the limited subscriptions, known in their history as the First General Voyage and the Fourth Joint Stock; which were applied to keep up a proportion of the Malabar trade; to preserve their right to the customs at Gombroon, and the grants for trade in Persian produce; to form settlements on the Coromandel coast; to revive, by exchanges, the trade at Bantam; and to preserve that proportion of the spice trade, to which they were entitled by the treaty of 1619.

‘VIII.—That, from the period when the monarchy was subverted, the London East India Company were compelled (not knowing in whom the sovereignty might ultimately be vested) to keep out of view, as much as might be practicable, the subject of their charter and exclusive privileges; to wave any questions respecting the intrusions of Courten, and the other interlopers, which had arisen in England, during the weakened period of the late reign; and to preserve, by temporary additions to their stock, the public opinion of the importance of the East India trade; while their servants, abroad, were exposed to depredations and imprisonment, occasioned by the irregularities of these inter'opers, and by the predominant fleets of the Dutch: — that in 1649-50, when Courten's Association assumed a new character, by establishing a colony at Assada, the East India Company applied to the Council of State for an Act of Parliament to encourage their trade; but were compelled to coalesce with these Assada merchants, and to form, for the support of the East India trade, what was termed an United Joint Stock: — that, after this union, they presented a series of petitions to the Council of State, and to Parliament, for redress of the grievances they had experienced from the Dutch, and, as the war with Holland approached, entered into the views of the Protector, by opening a Subscription, to fit out an armament to be sent to the East Indies, to obtain, by force, that reparation for the massacre at Amboyna, which had, in vain, been sought by negociation.

'IX.—That in 1654, when the Protectorate was established, and a compensation (though inadequate) obtained from the Dutch, by the treaty of peace, and when the London Company expected to be supported in their charter and privileges, Cromwell and the Council of State granted commissions or licences to a more formidable domestic rival (the Merchant Adventurers trading to the East Indies), than any to which the Company had hitherto been exposed: — that, notwithstanding petitions to the Protector and his Council, both by the Company, and by the Merchant Adventurers, their claims were, for a time, left undecided; partly from the prevalence of innovation, and partly from the claims of the successive stocks of the East India Company, for proportions of the compensation recovered from the Dutch: — but, during this period, both the Company and the Merchant Adventurers fitted out shipping, and sent stock to be invested in the Indian trade, which had the effect of creating an opinion, both in Holland and in the East Indies, that the London Company had been dissolved: this, in the former, led to the idea that the English fleets were to be sent to bear down the Dutch settlements in the East Indies; and, in the latter, to suspensions, and, in some cases, to the loss of those privileges, which the Company had purchased from the native powers.

'X.—That though for two years, Cromwell listened to the applications of the Merchant Adventurers, and hesitated, whether he should withdraw their exclusive privileges from the London East India Company, and though he had, during this period, granted licences to the Merchant Adventurers to fit out equipments for trade to the East Indies, yet the Council of State, on the fullest examination of the subject, decided, that the trade to the East Indies could only be carried on, by a chartered company, on a joint stock, and with exclusive privileges; and, therefore, notwithstanding the Company's rights had been infringed, they neither were lost, nor their Charter dissolved: and it is a most interesting fact, that in the whole of this investigation (though the monarchy, from which the Company had derived their charter, had fallen), it was never once doubted that this charter was valid and permanent, but that it was a subject of speculation only, whether the East India trade might not be conducted, on a more extensive and profitable scale, by Merchant t of these propositions is the only one on which we to make any remarks; and this, as the reader will nvolves all the points which are at present in dispute the Company and the nation. All is here made determinate. The author is troubled with no hesi- l doubt, but sees the matter to the bottom. Every ch the Company would wish to have, the Company have; the charter of incorporation, and exclusive ; — no theories of open trade, no interlopers!

uce says that ‘it has been *proved* that the East India England could only be conducted by a charter of tion, and exclusive privileges.’ Mr. B., it seems, is sfied with *proof*, when his interests and objects are ut the movements of his East India Company them- ght have taught him that his proof wanted something complete. If the private traders, who embarked in the ffic, were sure to incur ruin, as Mr. B. tells us was what motive could the Company have for that ex- alousy with which they pursued them all;—for those oppositions which they made to them, till, being too r any private competitor, they either ruined the ‘inter- exhausted his patience in the contest? The ruin which themselves the main cause of producing, their advocate ls up as affording proof that they should meet with no on. What would Mr. Bruce say if we were to take s word, and to advance a proposition in which no conomist will contradict us, that no trade which will he advantage of free competition can be good for the ich permits it to be carried on, or can be any thing n a contrivance to enrich a few individuals at the ex- the nation; and that, if the East India trade has is a trade of that description, it has been only a inst the country, and ought long ago to have been o its conclusion? If it cannot maintain itself under fit of competition now, we desire no other argument to us that all the artificial and costly support which s ought to be taken away, in order that its natural y relieve us from the burthen of it.

rgument, that private trade to India must always be a concern, was a principal article in the logical stock of pany, till very lately; that is, till certain new events them of the benefit of it. The merchants of the United ough a nation not much more abounding in capital land was even at the earliest period of the history of pany, carry on a private trade to India, which not only it threatens to leave far behind, the trade of the Company, though protected by 'a charter of Incorporation and exclusive privileges.' This is rather an unpleasant refutation of the argument that private trade to India cannot succeed. We may rest fully assured, however, that we are indebted to the Americans for the silence of the Company on this head. We should else have had not merely Mr. Bruce to insinuate the doctrine slily to us, through a medium of historical facts, endowed with the power of distortion at the pleasure of the author, but we should have had it boldly stated, and a triumphant challenge thrown down upon it, by Directors, Senators, and partisans of all descriptions. It would indeed have been easy to have disproved the fallacy, by reasoning as clear and conclusive as a demonstration of Euclid:—but that would have been of little avail. The gentlemen would have boldly asserted what answered their own purpose, while they as boldly denied the doctrine of their antagonists; and with all those who take assertion for argument, and care not to trouble themselves with reasoning, they would have carried their point:—that is to say, they would have had the great majority on their side.

Now, however, by the impudence of these enterprising republicans beyond the Atlantic, we are enabled to cut the controversy very short with Mr. Bruce. Let us allow, if he will have it so, that from the time of the Company's 'establishment by Queen Elizabeth to its restoration by King Charles II. the East India trade of England could only be conducted on a joint stock, protected by a charter of incorporation and exclusive privileges:'—if such were the case at that period, it is not so now; because the Americans, who have no joint stock, and who would not submit to the injustice of exclusive privileges, carry on the trade to India at a far more rapid march of prosperity than we do. The deduction is unavoidable, that exclusive privileges, whether wise or foolish at any preceding epoch, manifest the height of absurdity and abuse at the present.

As to what Mr. Bruce says in the last sentence, that 'the rights of the East India Company to its dead stock of forts, factories, or privileges of trade, were never at any time questioned by government,' if no deception be intended by the remark, yet deception is liable to be produced. An important distinction subsists in regard to the *apparent* property of the Company. Whatever has accrued to that body as merely merchants, or whatever factories, &c. are useful to them in their mercantile capacity, neither government nor private persons have denied to be the property of the Company:—but, on the other hand, whatever they have obtained in the capacity of sovereigns, or whatever is held for the benefit of the sovereignty, Parliament has expressly declared to belong to the nation, and *not* to the Company. The Company have, by the nation, been merely permitted to administer the affairs of the sovereignty, and this for a time exactly limited: — latterly, they have even been permitted to do so with only very partial powers; a principal share in that administration being transferred to the government.

It is of high importance that the public should be fully made to comprehend and to bear in mind this distinction; for one of the weapons with which the Company mean to fight is their *dead stock*, as they call it. "What!" they cry, when they hear the mischiefs of the monopoly demonstrated; "will you deprive us of our *dead stock*, will you violate property?" We have no such thought. Whatever is your property, keep it, and do with it what you please: but the sovereignty of India is not yours; nor any thing belonging to it. Nor is the monopoly yours; if, at the end of your charter, the nation thinks fit to take it from you. — The nation covets none of the property of the East India Company; it only desires that the Company should not, under false pretences, be allowed to rob it of the public property. The nation wants not the factories and commercial establishments of the Company for her private traders, any more than America wants them for *her* private traders. If they be of use to the East India Company, let that body use them; and if they be of no use, let the materials of them be sold at the best market which can be found. The Company exists as a corporate body, and may exist when it ceases to be intrusted with the sovereignty, or to enjoy a monopoly of the commerce of India. It can trade in competition with others, or is not fit to trade at all.

We now come to the author's second chapter, (Vol. II.) with its introduction; the latter purporting to contain a sketch of the political and commercial relations of England in Europe, and a view of the political and commercial state of the native powers in India, at the period in question. The subject of the chapter, to express it in the author's own words, is a 'Review of the Annals of the London East India Company, from the restoration of their privileges by King Charles II. in 1660-1, to the Revolution, 1688-9.'—During this epoch, though the government was bad, the nation prospered; a curious circumstance, which is in general by far too little considered. As the affairs of the Company partook of the prosperity which was common to their countrymen, their transactions were now on rather a larger scale. The principal events which occurred within this period were the acquisitions of Bombay and Madras, which were fortified and declared independent. These were the beginnings of the sovereignty in India; and the seat of government, which had been at Surat, the principal place of trade, was now transferred to Bombay. A factory was also established in Bengal, but only as an offset from the establishment at Madras. —One or two passages in this chapter, before we arrive at the author's *results*, will require us to pause a moment. The first is a curious pleading presented by the Company in their own behalf, and in opposition to the *interlopers:*

'The proceeding of the Court of Directors, in the season 1674-75, were influenced by the indirect attacks of the private traders or interlopers, by the political and commercial difficulties in the Peninsula of India, and by the military defence of Bombay, on which President Aungier had made his report.

'From the period at which the Council of State (during the Interregnum) had decided, that the trade between England and the East Indies could only proceed on a joint stock, with exclusive privileges, and, in a greater degree, from the restoration of the Company's charter by King Charles II., the interference of the private traders, or interlopers, as individuals, or as associations, had disappeared; and the transfer of the island of Bombay to the Company, by the Crown, had satisfied them, that any direct attack on the Company's privileges would be discouraged:—this impression, if it had checked, had not altogether extinguished their projects, and they were watching any incident which might again give plausibility to their speculations.

'It had been the practice of the Company to export, annually, under the licence of the Crown, considerable quantities of bullion and of foreign coins, as stock, for purchasing investments:—this practice the interlopers represented to be prejudicial to the interest of the kingdom, and injurious to commercial credit. The Court, aware that these assertions might, in the first instance, prejudice the public, and subsequently the government, against them, as a body, with exclusive privileges, and again bring up questions and opinions, that might facilitate the projects of their domestic opponents, adopted the decided measure of placing before the Government, a statement of facts, regarding their exports of bullion and foreign coins, that they might prove, by the large sums which the Company's trade paid to the revenue, and the outlets which it afforded to the staples and merchandize of the kingdom, that instead of being prejudicial to the general commerce of the kingdom, or, in any degree, detrimental to commercial credit, it had eminently contributed to the support of both.

'The following statement of the Company's affairs, at this juncture, will afford an interesting view of the value of the East India trade, on a joint stock, to the navigation and commerce of the Kingdom.

"A particular of all bullion (gold, silver, and pieces of eight) shipt out by the Company, since the year 1667 68, to this present year, 1674.

	£.	s.	d.
" In the year 1667-68	128,605	17	5
1668-69	162,394	9	10
1669-70	187,458	3	8
1670-71	186,149	10	11
1671-72	186,420	8	3
1672,73	131,300	5	11
1673-74	182,983	0	6

" In lieu whereof, and of several sorts of manufactures sent out by the Comp^{a}, there had been paid unto His Ma^{ty} for custom, yearly (*communibus annis*) the sum of about £35,000 per annum,

" And for encreasing the navigation and strength of this kingdom, there hath been built, within that time, and are now in building, twenty-four sail of ships, from three hundred and fifty, to six hundred tons burden, and they have paid for freight and wages, yearly, to the amount of £100,000 per annum.

" And have furnished His Majesty's kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, with all sorts of East India commodities (excepting cinnamon, cloves, nutts, and mace), which, had they not done, would have cost the kingdom farr greater rates to have been supplied from other nations.

" And, besides which, there is exported East India goods to other countries (by moderate estimate) double the value of what they have so exported in bullion, which is a very great encrease to the stock of this kingdom, and the proceed of a greater part thereof is, from time to time, returned in gold and silver.

" And as for the permissions granted to others to send on their ships, the Company not finding it convenient for themselves to trade in diamonds, bezoar stones, amber-greese, musk, pearles, and other fine goods, they have given leave to others to trade therein, paying onely a small acknowledgem^{t} to the Comp^{a} for freight, to the end that trade might not onely be preserved, but encreased, to the kingdom's advantage; by which also, this kingdom is not onely furnished with those commodities, but there is also sent out from hence, of those fine goods, to a very great value, unto other countries, for encreasing the stock of this kingdom."

It is curious to observe what a sameness prevails in the apologies and defences that have been set up by the Company, from the earliest period of their operations to the present: but, as they found the *old stuff* answer their purpose, they perhaps thought that they had no occasion to incur the expence of new. The first great service, which they pretended to render to the nation, was that of paying duties of custom, and for this they still claim distinction; — so profound is the ignorance in which either they themselves are still buried, or which they count on finding in the Legislature which they address; — and as if other branches of trade did not pay custom, as well as East India trade; — as if private merchants, trading to India, would not have been subjected to the same duties;—and as if it were not now fully known to all the instructed men in Europe, that customs are really paid by the *consumers* of the goods, not *the importers* of them; and that whatever duties are levied on East India imports, it is *the nation* which pays them, not the Company.

The Company seem to have been somewhat cunningly acquainted throughout with the prejudices and weaknesses of the Legislature. They next pretended to have been of great use to the naval strength of the nation; and this pretension is still with them a favourite topic in their own behalf. It is, however, so perfectly ill founded, that in no other direction, perhaps, whatever, is so much British capital employed in maritime traffic with so little aid to our means of naval defence; and in no other species of maritime traffic could the same capital be employed, in which it would not add as much to these means; or, rather, scarcely any in which it would not add a great deal more. Besides, as the private merchants, if no monopoly had prevailed, would have carried on the same or a greater trade, what room or occasion have the Company for boasting? They say, moreover, that they afforded the country Indian goods cheaper than it would have bought them from other nations. This, in the first place, we do not believe: but, in the next place, the nation had another and a preferable resource. It would have procured these goods, if it wanted them, better and cheaper from its own individual traders, than from either the Company or foreign nations.—The exportation of British goods is exposed to exactly the same conclusions.

The last paragraph of the passage which we have just quoted is important. The Company tell us that, in a certain list of commodities, (commodities in which it was not convenient for themselves to deal,—that is to say, in which the profits were too small,) they did allow private merchants to trade:—but what do they say? that these private traders, dealing in the least profitable articles, and paying moreover a duty to the Company, ruined themselves? Far from it! They say that they allowed such trade, 'to the end that it might not only be preserved, but encreased, to the kingdom's advantage; by which, also, this kingdom is not only furnished with these commodities, but there is also sent out from hence, of those fine goods, to a very great value, into other countries, for increasing the stock of this kingdom.' Do we here see any symptom of incapacity in private traders to carry on profitably the commerce with India, when even the refuse of that traffic of which all the most profitable part was interdicted them, still formed in their hands a flourishing business? This is a sufficient answer to all the insinuations of Mr. Bruce, respecting the impracticability of private trade to India.

The next passage, which is short, we quote to shew, 1st, the perpetual tendency which the capital of individual merchants had to run into the channel of Indian commerce, and the proof which is here afforded of the profits which private adventure would have drawn from it to the nation; and 2dly, the steady resistance, and unrelenting antipathy, with which all their attempts were met and frustrated on the part of the Company:

'At the commencement of the season 1684-85, the Court appear to have proceeded on the same plan of obstructing (with the support of the crown) the interlopers in Europe, and of abridging the charges at Bombay, civil and military.

'The interlopers had, hitherto, clandestinely equipped ships, and taken in cargoes from England, and had proceeded direct to the East-Indies, and on their arrival, by similar arts, had eluded the restraints which the Presidencies and Agencies had endeavoured to impose on them; in this season, however, they had recourse to an expedient, which, in the sequel, will be found to have been the source of remonstrances, as well as treaties between the Maritime powers. The ships, instead of taking in their cargoes at a British port, went to Ostend, and took in Europe produce, on British capital, and thence proceeded to India:—the Court, on discovering this project, applied to the king, who ordered a man of war to intercept them, but two of their vessels escaped; instructions were, therefore, sent to the Company's agents, to seize their ships and goods.'

Here is no want of evidence to prove the capacity of private traders for supporting and managing a commerce with India; and the following is another illustration that no deficiency of energy and perseverance was manifested on the part of the Company in opposing them:

'The accession of King James II. to the Throne, confirmed the opinion of the Company, that they would receive the same protection which they had formerly enjoyed, and be enabled more effectually to oppose the interlopers. From the information sent to the President of Surat, the Court appear to have resolved to prosecute in the Court of King's Bench, forty-eight of the principal interlopers; several of whom had, by confessions, and by petitions to the King, admitted their guilt, and saved the Company the trouble and expence of adducing evidence against them. Jealous, and with reason, of the fidelity of many of their servants at Surat and Bombay, the Court directed the Judge Advocate to try the commanders or officers of the interloping ships, agreeably to his instructions; but the Presidency were to avoid all questions, in India, on the legality of the proceedings, and to order, that the sentences pronounced by him should be carried into execution:—To assist the Judge in discharging these duties, 'X.—That the East-India Company, after finding Phirmaunds, or grants of privileges, and exemptions from customs, insufficient to protect either the seats of their trade, or the transit of their goods, through the interior provinces, resolved to commence hostilities against the Mogul, and to assume the rank of an Independent Power, by constituting *Regencies* at Bombay and Fort St. George, and a similar *Regency* at Chittagong, should the large armament sent to the East-Indies succeed in obtaining possession of that station: — that, to consolidate this system, it was necessary to incur the charges of erecting fortifications and maintaining garrisons, for the protection of trade, and not less so, to have, in the Indian Seas, a naval force, superior to that possessed by any of the native Princes, and equal to resist (in the event of war in Europe) the armaments of the Maritime Powers having settlements or trade in the East-Indies.'

The third and last chapter is intitled, 'Review of the annals of the Honourable East India Company, from the Revolution, in 1688-89, to the Union of the London and English East India Companies, in 1708.' The author's *annals*, we see, are every where *reviews of annals*. He seems to have thought that annals were events; not the history of events.

An introduction precedes this as it preceded the other chapters; and the politics of the European nations, with a mere reference to what had been previously said of the politics of India, form the subject of it. A new event, which occurred during the period embraced in this chapter, requires a very large portion of the attention of our historian. The claims of the general body of merchants, (bearing, in Mr. Bruce's vocabulary, the title of *interlopers*,) for a share in the trade to India, had for some time been growing stronger and stronger; and the interest of the Company with the ruling powers had become weaker. At last, the pretensions of the merchants were organized into a demand for the erection of a new Company; which, after a train of applications and oppositions, was finally accomplished. This circumstance introduced a new series of events, because, after a period of common operations, and mutual though covered hostilities, neither Company was found in a thriving condition: and since their rivalship was regarded as the cause of their ill fortune, steps began to be recommended, and afterward to be pursued, for their union; a measure which at length took place. With the account of this occurrence, the labours of the Annalist close. We observe no particular passage in the chapter, which we deem of sufficient importance to detain the reader; and we shall, therefore, pass directly forwards to the *results*. We are sorry that they are too long to permit us to insert the whole of them: but we must begin with the sixth, and likewise omit the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth. The rest are as follow:

'VI.—That the principle upon which the General Society approached Parliament, though it participated, in character, with those of each of the classes of Interlopers which have been described, was more specious, and, therefore, more popular than any of them; or, that the trade to the East-Indies would proceed on a stock of 2,000,000l, and thus have all the advantages of the London Company's credit: but as each individual Proprietor was to be allowed to carry on a separate trade, to the extent of his share in the stock, this principle, in fact, was that of an *Open Trade*; — that this apparent advantage was combined with the large sum of 2,000,000l. offered to be advanced for the public service, which induced Parliament to pass the act for establishing the *General Society for Trade to the East-Indies*; —and that, in the short space of two days after the privileges of the London Company were overset, this General Society laid aside, with very inconsiderable exceptions, the practicability of individuals carrying on trade, each on his separate proportion of stock, and obtained from the King, a Charter, on the basis of this act of Parliament, for establishiag the *English Company*, who were to carry on their trade on a *Joint Stock*, in the same manner, and under similar regulations, as the London East-India Company.

'VII.—That the London Company, in their own language, instead of sinking under this accumulation of evils, had recourse "*with a true Roman Courage*," to the only effectual means of repelling them: they examined the strength of their opponent in stock, and purchased so large a proportion of it, as to be able to ascertain, and to counteract his projects;—they increased their own funds by large subscriptions, and, on these, added to their equipments, and to their exports and imports;—they excluded this rival association from their factories and seats of trade, being real property, which they had either purchased with large sums, or privileges which they had obtained with larger;—they placed their foreign settlements under the controling power of a governor general, with instructions (natural to merchants) to bear down on their rival in the market, by the magnitude of their European sales, and of their Indian purchases; and not contented with these exertions, obviated, by equipments to the China Seas, his pretensions to commerce in countries within their limits, which their hitherto heavy charges had not enabled them, but contingently, to visit;—and, finally, selected such of their servants, as were most distinguished for probity and experience, to resist the pretensions of rivals, who had been selected from the old Interlopers, to introduce a commerce, and to establish settlements, in ports already occupied, not only by the London Company, but by the Companies of the other European nations.

'VIII.—That the English Company, on the contrary, having triumphed over the London Company, in the warfare for rights, in England, anticipated a corresponding triumph in the East-Indies:—Instead of attempting any new commercial arrangements, they merely copied those which the London Company had practised, adding the powers of King's Consul to that of President, in their three projected establishments at Surat, Masulipatam, and Hughly; and gave to the persons whom they had appointed to manage their concerns, as a general instruction, to depress the London Company's trade and settlements, by representations to the Native Powers of their having been dissolved by the King, for their improper conduct; — that the servants of the English Company insinuated to these Powers, that the London Company were secretly connected with those pirates, whom they openly pretended to reprobate, and so satisfied was the King of England of their improper proceedings, that he had sent a special ambassador (Sir William Norris) to the Mogul, to solicit Phirmaunds, for the introduction of trade into all the countries within his dominions; and that the English Company were, in fact, the only instruments through whom an extensive commerce could be established, between England and the East-Indies.

' IX.—That the effect of this impolitic establishment of two rival Companies, in England, on the presidencies and factories of the London Company, in India, was, to abridge the commercial efforts of their servants, in the exercise of those rights and privileges which they had purchased, for valuable considerations, and were maintaining, at an annual great expence; to lower, by competition, the price of British produce in the Indian markets, and to raise the price of that Indian produce, which hitherto had constituted their investments; to expose their servants, in such stations as had not been fortified, to arbitrary imprisonment, and their property to seizure and confiscation; and, finally, to owe their safety to the employment which the Mogul and Hindoo armies found, the one, in preparing for a civil war for the succession, when the death of Aurungzebe should vacate the Throne, the other, for resisting their Mogul masters, and to re-assert and recover their ancient independence.

' X.—That the effect of these events, at home and abroad, on the English Company, was, that though they had borne down, and triumphed over the London Company's privileges, in England, by furnishing larger resources to the state, this superiority was neither calculated to introduce, nor to establish new seats of trade in India; for to the Native powers, of every description, the distinction between the two Companies was unintelligible; and though the agents of the English Company might be vested with, and assume higher rank, in Britain, than the agents of the London Company had done, this rank could not be comprehended by the Native Powers and States, who could only form an opinion of the comparative merits of the competitors in trade, by the appearance of power which each possessed, or the magnitude of their purchases in the Indian markets: —that having had experience of the power of the London Company, in their fortified stations, and of the magnitude, as well as the probity of their dealings, they compared them with the prices for privileges which the servants of the English Company offered, and with the inferior goods, and stock, which they introduced into the markets; and though, for a time, the natives hesitated, from the application for greater privileges from the Mogul, by an Ambassador, yet the delays in obtaining the Phirmaunds, rendered them doubtful of the issue, while the absurd adherence to the forms of European diplomacy, by this Ambassador, terminated, not only the pretensions to superior authority in the English, over the London Company, but had nearly ruined the existence of the trade of both, and must have had this effect, had the administration of Aurungzebe been as vigorous at the close, as it was at the commencement of his reign.

'XI.—That when the events, which marked the progress of the competition between the two East-India Companies, became known in Britain, it was perceived, but too late, that this competition must inevitably terminate in the bankruptcy of the one, or of the other; and this consequence soon became perfectly obvious to the mercantile part of the community, who decided, that the Company, whose stock was rapidly sinking in value, and whose commercial funds could only be buoyed up, for the moment, by subscriptions, must certainly experience the same fate as their depreciated credit.'—

'XV.—That the impracticability of completing the Union, while the separate interests of the two Companies were to be adjusted by themselves, led to the Act, the 6th of Queen Anne, which compelled both to appeal to the Lord High Treasurer, Godolphin, whose able Award terminated, upon fair and just terms, that competition, which plausible theories of commerce, and the improvident establishment of opposing companies, had so unhappily begun; an Award, which took away from each, the possibility of recourse to expedients for maintaining separate interests, and, in itself, recognized, as by law it was authorized to do, all the privileges which the grants of the crown had given to the London Company, and all the rights which the English Company had derived from an Act of Legislature, and combining both, confirmed the corporate capacity of THE UNITED COMPANY OF MERCHANTS OF ENGLAND TRADING TO THE EAST-INDIES.

'XVI.—From the whole of these Annals it appears, that the United Company, as recognized by the Award of Lord Godolphin, are vested with all the rights of the London and English Companies, and that they have been declared by law, to be entitled to the Dead Stock, which the Indenture Tripartite had ascertained:—That the value of this Dead Stock was, however, at the time, estimated rather with a view to a compromise, than deduced from the actual expenditure of the London Company, in purchasing their settlements, or in giving valuable considerations to the Native Powers, for grants of privileges, or from the annual charges for presents, and bribes, to those sovereigns, and to their governors, to allow them the quiet possession of their seats of trade, in the undefended factories:—That these sums, or expenditure, constituted, also, a large part of the Dead Stock, which cannot be estimated, even by the indefinite computation of many millions, but to which the United East-India Company have an undoubted right, on the principles of the Constitution, and of the Laws of England;—That the actual value of this Dead Stock of the United Company has been encreased, by the advances which they have made to the public, by the sums paid as revenue from their commerce, and by the civil and military charges of acquiring and preserving their seats of trade; and, even at this early time, to those seats of trade must be ascribed the valuable exchanges between Britain and India, and subsequently, in a still greater proportion, the circuitous exchanges with China:—That, therefore, to whatever magnitude the Dead Stock of the United Company may, since that time, have been extended, it cannot be taken from them, should the Legislature, after the experience of two centuries, again give way to any similar speculations for East-India commerce, with those which have been proved to be impracticable, or to any hazardous theories of general trade, without, in justice, and in equity, giving to the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East-Indies, a full compensation for their Dead Stock, and for the charges of acquiring and preserving those territorial pessessions, which have extended the limits of the British empire, and so largely contributed to the encrease of its navigation and commerce.'

We need not particularly remark on the sixth, seventh, and eighth propositions, forming the first part of the above extract, because they contain merely the author's view of the rivalship between the two Companies: but one or two of Mr. Bruce's allegations respecting the effects of that rivalship, stated in the ninth proposition, would deserve a fuller notice than it is in our power to take of them. The competition, it seems, 'abridged the commercial efforts of the Company's servants in the exercise of the Company's rights:'—but what competition exists, of which it is not the nature to produce the same result? Suppose that a man has erected or purchased a manufactory, or laid out money on any other mercantile concern, does not every new competitor in the trade tend to 'abridge his exertions in the exercise of his rights and privileges, purchased for valuable considerations, and maintained at an annual expence?' Any insinuation against the justice of free competition, on this ground, must not be permitted to delude. By this rule, every public-house would have reason to complain of injustice as often as another public-house is erected in same parish. —— 'The competition lowered the price of British produce in the Indian markets, and raised the price of Indian produce:'—but competition must have the above effect wherever a nation trades: it must have the same effect in Europe, Africa, and America, that it produces in Asia. If Mr. Bruce's argument for the monopoly be good for any thing, then it proves that no nation ought ever to trade through any other medium than exclusive companies; establishing a single company for the trade to each nation, by which all competition would be prevented. In fact, we know not whether the reason of the rule would stop here; whether it would not be better to have but one large company for each quarter of the globe: or indeed, which would be more complete still, to have one sole company for our trade to the whole of the globe. We should then be most perfectly sure of losing nothing by the competition of our own merchants to lower the price of our own produce,

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the list of articles which Mr. Bru
calls the *Dead Stock* of the Com
penditure of the London Compan
ments, or in giving valuable conside
for grants of privileges, or from t
sents, and bribes, to those sovereig
part of the dead stock which cann
indefinite computation of many m
made to the public: — 3, the sum
commerce of the Company: — 4, th
of acquiring and preserving the In
believe that an enumeration of such
never before presented to the eyes of
India Company have so long found th
on the Legislature and the country,

“ You must re-imburse our expences?” These expences were incurred under the well known condition, that the exclusive privileges were to terminate at a fixed period of years. As well might a farmer, who had purchased his lease of a preceding tenant, go to the proprietor at the termination of that lease, and demand of him the re-imbursement of the purchase-money or a renewal of the lease: — but so much front, or so much folly, was never known in an English farmer. Yet this is the argument which the East India Company expect to impose on the British Parliament! —The presents and bribes, which the Company have given to the men of power in India, should be re-imbursed to them by the nation, says Mr. Bruce: — but then it would surely be fair that the nation should obtain from the Company, beforehand, all the presents and bribes which they have ever in their turn *received from* the native powers; and in that case, we believe, the public might safely undertake to repay all the presents and bribes which the East India Company ever *gave*.

2. With regard to the advances made to the public:—that which the Company has advanced to the public on loan, the public undoubtedly owes; it forms part and parcel of the national debt; and the nation will punctually discharge it. Certain other sums may be stated, which the Company engaged to pay as debts to the public, for certain renewals of their charter, but the greater part of which the Company have never discharged, and they remain as debts due to the nation; so far are they in any sense from forming part of the stock of the Company.

3. The sums paid as revenue from the commerce of the Company make, says Mr. Bruce, a part of the *Dead Stock* of the Company, ‘ to which they have an undoubted right, on the principles of the Constitution and of the laws of England.’ In point of naked assurance, this assertion exceeds all the rest. The duties of customs, which the imports of the East India Company have paid, exactly as those duties have been borne by any other imports, ought to be re-imbursed to them, unless their charter is renewed! As well might any other merchant who ever paid custom-house duties in his life, or whose ancestors ever paid any, come and state them as a debt due to him by the nation. The true matter of fact is, as we have already observed, that the duties advanced on East India goods have been paid by the public. Who recollects not that the nation, many years ago, submitted to have an additional tax laid on their houses and windows, in order that tea, one of the main articles of import by the Company, might sustain less duty? Had the customs on East India imports been paid by the Com-

pany,

pany, this measure would have taken so much money out of the pockets of the people in order to put it into those of the Company.

4. 'The civil and military charges of acquiring and preserving the sovereignty ought to be re-imbursed to the Company.' —Mr. Bruce seems to forget that the Company have been in the habit of receiving all the vast revenues, as well as the plunder, of the territories which they have acquired. If the nation must pay all that the Company have expended for the country, the Company must first produce all which they have drawn from the country: but this is not the proper view of the case. It was for the Company's own purposes, or the purposes of their servants, that they have gone on with their expensive acquisition of territory, in opposition to the express authority of the British Parliament, which had declared that conquests in India were neither for the interest nor for the honour of the British nation;—and it was under the indisputable knowlege of the limited period of time during which the Company had a shadow of right to the sovereignty, or to the exclusive trade, that they went on with their expenditure. It was for the Company, therefore, to consider the interest which they had in making that expenditure. The farmer, who has built houses and made expensive improvements during his lease, does not pretend that the lord of his farm owes him any thing on that score at the end of his lease. He knew the terms on which he expended, and knew when it was for his interest to disburse and when it was not. It is very true that the East India Company would have done well to have squandered much less: but they have as deeply injured the nation by their burthensome conquests as they have injured themselves.

As for the heavy and unpolished style of the author of these volumes, we have left ourselves no room to bestow on it any remarks: but the specimens which we have extracted will in some measure supply their place.

ART. II. *Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce;* with the Premiums offered in the Years 1807 and 1809. Vols. XXV. XXVI. and XXVII. 8vo. 10s. 6d. each Vol. Boards. Robson, White, Becket and Porter, &c.

INSTEAD of exhibiting Philosophy in a chair of state, to attract the gaze and admiration of mankind, this Society represents her in the less imposing but more useful attitude of *a Maid of all work*, and continues to prove how serviceable she may

roved condition of social man, in order to be struck
nse of the importance of philosophy in reference to
vation of all those arts by which every object of the
world, and even the elements themselves, are made
nt to our use. Before men became *tool-making* ani-
timber of the forest and the treasure of the mine were
nd agriculture itself could not have existed: but no
ere they acquainted with the mechanical powers and
lication, than a boundless field of improvement was
o view. We know what an almost infinity of inven-
re flowed from the principles and the practice of
and it is highly probable that many discoveries, of
e are now strangers, will yet be developed by the pro-
of ingenious researches. Every volume of the transac-
this Society, indeed, presents us with gratifying proofs
dvances of this country in beneficial inventions and
mforts; and though many of the objects for which
s are offered are trifling in the contemplation of the
ve philosopher, they are not only interesting to a certain
the community, but it is to be remembered that by a
e of little inventions human labour is abridged, the
assisted, and the aggregate of our enjoyments is en-
Let it be mentioned to the honour of this Society, that
erely labours to promote the growth of navy-timber,
ation of land, the encouragement of the herring-fish-
various other great national objects, but that it affords
e to those who employ their genius in devising an im-
nt in a culinary stove, a new mode of cleaning chim-
even a machine to assist the shoe-maker to close boots

munications, the reader will perceive with pleasure that the practice of raising timber-trees is in several instances carried on with spirit; and we trust that the laudable examples here specified will operate with gentlemen who have land that is capable of being profitably applied to this purpose.

The Chinese method of propagating fruit trees by *abscission*, instead of raising them from seeds, or from grafts, is described in a letter from Dr. James Howison, and illustrated by an engraving: but we are not informed, on the authority of any of our nursery-men, or philosophical horticulturists, how far the practice merits adoption in this country. The account of the Chinese process is thus given:

'They select a tree of that species which they wish to propagate, and fix upon such a branch as will least hurt or disfigure the tree by its removal.

'Round this branch, and as near as they can conveniently to its junction with the trunk, they wind a rope, made of straw, besmeared with cow dung, until a ball is formed, five or six times the diameter of the branch. This is intended as a bed into which the young roots may shoot. Having performed this part of the operation, they immediately under the ball divide the bark down to the wood, for nearly two-thirds of the circumference of the branch. A cocoa-nut shell or small pot is then hung over the ball, with a hole in its bottom, so small that water put therein will only fall in drops; by this the rope is constantly kept moist, a circumstance necessary to the easy admission of the young roots, and to the supply of nourishment to the branch from this new channel.

'During three succeeding weeks, nothing further is required, except supplying the vessels with water. At the expiration of that period, one-third of the remaining bark is cut, and the former incision is carried considerably deeper into the wood, as by this time it is expected that some roots have struck into the rope, and are giving their assistance in support of the branch.

'After a similar period, the same operation is repeated, and in about two months from the commencement of the process, the roots may generally be seen intersecting each other on the surface of the ball, which is a sign that they are sufficiently advanced to admit of the separation of the branch from the tree. This is best done by sawing it off at the incision, care being taken that the rope, which by this time is nearly rotten, is not shaken off by the motion. The branch is then planted as a young tree.

'It appears probable, that to succeed with this operation in Europe, a longer period would be necessary, vegetation being much slower in Europe than in India, the chief field of my experiments. I am, however, of opinion, from some trials which I have lately made on cherry trees, that an additional month would be adequate to make up for the deficiency of climate.'

A convenient Instrument for finding the Girth of standing Timber Trees has been invented by Mr. James Broad, of Down-

tropolis, th
Hill, near Northall
of rearing Poultry
interest. By settin
chickens, as they
mother, and by supp
Mrs. D'Oyley has r
tificial mothers are
boards about ten in
ported by two feet
roof and back are lin
on them; the roof is
ends have flannel cur
they do by instinct.'
cages, which are plac
kitchen fire. Five hu
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the market.

It may be unnecess
Wheat, by Major Spen
Haddington, North B
use of tar (an egg-shell
and of *liquid opium* or
horses, (a table-spoon
when they swell, may d
C. raises poppies, and p
us that he has cured ma
standing, by the followi

'Take half a pound of
any of th

two more may be taken the following morning. One dose sometimes cures, two generally, and I have never had occasion to employ it more than thrice. For young children one tea-spoonful is sufficient.'

We have also a letter from the Major, recommending *Furze-blossom-tea* as a remedy for weak eyes.

Lord Boringdon (vol. xxvi.) communicates an account of *having gained from the sea the whole of Chelson Bay, a space measuring* 175 *acres.* His Lordship conceives that the land thus obtained, if offered to sale, would produce about 25,000l.; while the expence of the embankment, &c. has been only 9000l.

A similar operation, performed by William Lawrence, Esq. of Maldon, Essex, is related in the next letter. By an embankment, which, with *et cætera,* cost 507l. 10s. 11½d., 100 acres of good land, formerly unproductive, have been added to the estate of the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's.

To reduce the knowlege of the growth of timber to something like system, Mr. C. Waistell, High Holborn, has constructed *a series of Tables for ascertaining the value of growing Timber, at different and distinct periods of time;* and his observations on this subject, though too long for extraction, must be recommended to those country-gentlemen who are in possession of woods and plantations. Mr. W.'s practical hints and calculations manifest a knowlege of the topic on which he treats. He has found that 'the increase in circumference of trees is generally from about one to two inches annually, and from twelve to eighteen inches the annual increase in height.'

In a subsequent communication, (vol. xxvii. p. 79.) Mr.W. invites gentlemen to bring forwards well-ascertained facts, respecting 'the nature of the soil and under-strata on which plantations have been made; its value per acre; the mode in which it was prepared for planting; the sorts of trees planted thereon, and which of them were found best suited thereto; the distances at which the trees were first planted; at what periods they were thinned, and how many cut out at each thinning; and their measure and value; the present height, distance, measure, and value of the trees now growing on an acre; what distances are found most advantageous; also to what proportion of their heights they should be pruned up, and the best and most expeditious mode of performing the operation.' As replies to these queries would throw light on a subject of some national importance, we trust that Mr. W.'s hints will meet with due attention.

The culture of Vegetables, it is well known, has long engaged the attention of J. C. Curwen, Esq., M.P. of Workington-Hall, Cumberland; and in a paper here presented to the Society, he details

Besides the papers already noticed, the 27th volume contains the following in the agricultural class.

Mr. William Lester, of Paddington, presents an account of his improved *Root-Washer*, or a machine for washing potatoes and other esculent roots for feeding cattle; illustrated with an engraving, without which a clear idea of its figure and operation cannot be formed.

For packing Trees and Plants intended for Exportation, Mr. Salisbury, of the Botanic Gardens at Brompton, recommends the use of the *Spagnum palustre* of Linné, or the long white moss, which grows in great abundance on peat-bogs. This substance possesses the power of retaining moisture in a wonderful degree, while it also resists fermentation; and 'trees which have been packed up in close boxes with it, from September, 1807, till March, 1808, have grown equally well, as they would have done if only transplanted from one part to another of the same ground.' In a subsequent paper, Mr. S. explains his mode of *raising Grass-Seeds and preparing Meadow-Land.*

On the culture of the Parsnip, which has been found by experience to be a far more nutritious root than the Potatoe. Charles Le Hardy, Esq. of the island of Jersey, details the process of cultivation, and the application of parsnips in feeding cattle, in the island on which he resides.

Various hints are suggested by the Rev. James Hall, Walthamstow, in a letter on the preparation of *Bean-hemp*, or on the mode of obtaining a substitute for hemp from the bean-stalk. Whether the process here recommended would answer the expectations of those who tried it on a large scale, we much doubt; as also whether the loppings of the fig-tree and the prunings of the vine would produce, by infusion, *uncommonly fine table-beer:* but Mr. Hall's suggestions respecting the application of refuse hemp and flax to the purpose of making paper are valuable; and a large quantity may thus be supplied for newspapers, and for the demands of what he calls 'fugacious literature.'

Of the letter from Mr. John Saddington, of Finchley, on *Kohl Rabi, Drum-headed Cabbage, and Swedish Turnips*, we shall merely say that it scarcely merited insertion.

CHEMISTRY.

The three volumes before us contain only seven papers in this class.

Lord Ribblesdale, of Gisburne Park, Yorkshire, describes a mine of *Zinc Ore* on his estate, and speaks in high terms of its application as a paint, in lieu of white lead: but, from the manner in which this paper is introduced, we suspect that the excellence of this material as a pigment is much exaggerated. Though Lord R. contends that the substance of his zinc paint is equal to white lead, the Society asserts that, on trial by various persons, it was not found fully to answer this purpose; yet the Silver Medal was voted to his Lordship.

Instead of using the ordinary composition (viz. two parts of pipe-clay and one of sand) in the construction of *Muffles for chemical purposes*, Mr. Edmund Turrell, Rawstone-street, Goswell-street, recommends the coarser kind of Stourbridge clay, which can be obtained at a cheaper rate at the glass-houses; to which he adds only one-eighth part of pipe-clay, mixing them together into a thick consistence with water. Mr. T. describes the moulds and instruments which he employs in the formation of his Muffles, and specifies their superior utility: but here, as on most other occasions of this kind, a view of the plate is necessary to a correct apprehension of the construction.

A method of painting Linen Cloth in Oil Colours, to be more pliant, durable, and longer impervious to water, than in the usual mode, is detailed by Mr. William Anderson, of the Dock Yard, Portsmouth; who also explains his manner of obtaining from old unserviceable canvas all the colour which had been laid on it; and his process for *lead-coloured paint on iron*, which is preferable to such as is commonly made from white lead and black. This hint may be generally useful, and therefore we transcribe it:

> 'I take a fire shovel, and put a small quantity of common litharge thereon, and place it over the fire. I then take a small portion of flour of brimstone between my fingers, and scatter it over the litharge, when the same is sufficiently warm to give light to it. It is instantly converted to a blackish colour, which, when ground in oil, makes a good dark lead colour. It dries quick, gets remarkably hard, and resists the weather beyond any other lead colour.'

While Mr. Anderson was employed in the preservation of Iron, Mr. T. Saddington, of Lower Thames-street, was contriving *a cheap method of preserving Fruit without Sugar, for house-use or sea-stores*; and we are told that bottles of fruit thus preserved are placed in the Society's Repository:—to be kept, we suppose, to the Millenium! The process here recommended is briefly as follows: 'Fill the bottles quite full with fruit. Put the corks in loosely. Set them in a copper, or kettle of water. Increase the heat to scalding for about three quarters of an hour; when of a proper degree, keep at the same half an hour longer. Fill up with boiling water. Cork down tight. Lay them on their side until wanted for use.' —Our *House-keeper* not being *at home* for us to consult, we cannot state in what particulars this receipt differs from the common mode: but we are sure that she would stare if we told her, when she bottled gooseberries, that she was a chemist!

The Society's Committee of Chemistry make a favourable report on the *various specimens of British Marble* presented to them from *the Babicomb Quarry, near Teignmouth, Devonshire,* by Mr. J. P. Hubbard, Picket-street, Temple Bar. The introduction of this article into general use is recommended: but it is probable that the *prejudice* in favour of foreign marble will continue.

The Experiments made on the Prussic and Prussous Acids, by Mr. R. Porrett, jun. of the Tower, are certainly curious, and his observations tend to throw light on their constituent principles. This paper will of course attract the attention of chemists, and induce them to repeat the author's experiments.

Respecting the *Culture and colouring Qualities of Madder,* Mr. William Salisbury, of the Botanic Gardens, flatters himself that he has made a valuable discovery; having been instrumental in introducing into our home culture, an article which gives to cotton the most beautiful and permanent red colour in existence. Mr. S. raised his Madder-roots from seeds presented to the Society by Mr. Spencer Smith, who procured them from Smyrna. He adds:

> 'Many former attempts to cultivate madder in England have failed, I understand, on account of the calico-printers formerly requiring it in a powdry state, but since the establishment in this kingdom of the Adrianople or Turkey red dye upon cotton, some thousand tons in weight of madder roots from the Levant, are annually used in Great Britain for dyeing that colour, and for which use this kind of madder in the fresh root will be found superior.
>
> 'I am informed that by the application of the Society of Arts, &c. to Government, madder roots grown in England are exempted from tithes.
>
> 'I have every reason to believe, that for use in painting much finer colours than the present may be obtained from the roots of this plant by spirituous or acetous extracts.'

By this report, the growth of madder in England will surely be promoted; and various experiments on the colouring matter extracted from the fresh roots will be made for the benefit of the artist as well as the dyer.

POLITE ARTS.

Only two papers occur under this head, which it will be sufficient merely to specify. The first is a letter from Mrs. Hooker, Mr. Thomas Saddington, of Monkwell-street, Falcon-square, (the same person mentioned above as residing in Lower Thames-street) describes a *machine of his invention for manufacturing Silk-covered Wire and Thread covered with Silk.* This curious instrument obviates the inconveniencies attending the common mode of covering wire, occupies a small space, and executes its work with regularity. Its complexity, however, precludes the possibility of our conveying a notion of its structure and operation by mere verbal description.

We reserve for another article our report of the papers contained in the remaining classes of these volumes.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *South American Emancipation.—Documents, historical and explanatory*, shewing the Designs which have been in progress, and the Exertions made by General Miranda, for the Attainment of that Object during the last twenty-five Years. By J. M. Antepara, a Native of Guayaquil. 8vo. pp. 299. Sold by all Booksellers.

MORE than two years have now passed since we took an opportunity of expressing our sentiments (Vol. lviii. March, 1809,) on the subject of the independence of Spanish America. The minds of the majority of the natives of that vast region have, for a long time, been influenced by a strong disposition to follow the example of their brethren of the North, and withdraw from the gripe of European monopoly: but the remembrance of unsuccessful efforts at insurrection, the presence of a military force, and the connection of the public functionaries with Old Spain, were sufficient to hold in check, till of late, an unwarlike and divided population; and it was not till the almost complete occupancy of Spain by the French, and the retreat of the Spanish regency within the walls of Cadiz, presented to the colonists the appearance of the extinction of that government which had so long controuled them, that the designs which they had secretly fostered were avowed, and put in a train of execution. The name of France and of Bonaparte being detested in these Trans-atlantic regions, it could not be doubted, after the declension of the Spanish influence, that a resort to independence would be the only alternative of the colonists; and if we pay attention to the dates of the various insurrectional movements which have for some time taken place in Spanish America, we shall observe that they became bolder and more general in proportion as the preponderance of the French in Spain grew more decided. Of late, they appear to extend themselves in all directions; and though they may be resisted for a season by the military and the magistrates, the chances are all in favour of an ultimate separation from the mother-country. Independence is so flattering a prize, and so strongly interests every individual who can become a partner in its possession, that the spirit, once roused, is not likely to be finally subdued, without the use of stronger means of coercion than, according to appearances, will be employed against it.

Under these circumstances, we have to notice the publication of a series of papers by J. M. Antepara, a native of South America; who informs us, in his preface, that having lately arrived in England, and obtained the acquaintance of General Miranda, he was intrusted by that officer with the perusal of various documents relating to the emancipation of Spanish America. Many of these, he adds, appeared to him of such importance as to call for general circulation; and he accordingly became the editor of the present work, which consists of a series of documents relative to the various plans that have been proposed in England, France, and America, for securing independence to the western hemisphere. The volume begins with a reprint of an essay on the subject, which appeared in one of our literary journals above two years ago; and the papers which succeed may be classed under the following heads:

1. Documents relative to Miranda, previously to 1792.
2. Documents relative to Miranda when in the military service of France.
3. Documents relative to the Caraccas expedition in 1806.
4. Documents relative to the political conduct of Miranda, generally.
5. Miranda's correspondence with the colonies since the invasion of Spain by Bonaparte.

The object of M. Antepara's publication appears to be, to enable his countrymen to form a clear opinion of the character and proceedings of the man who has so long shewn himself the indefatigable advocate of their independence. We learn from these papers that Miranda, after having served several years in the Spanish army, and attained the rank of Lieutenant-colonel, left the Havannah in 1783 to proceed on his travels, beginning with the United States. Two years afterward, we find him sending in his resignation to the Spanish minister, Count Florida Blanca; and setting out on an European tour; in the course of which he traversed successively Germany, Italy, Greece, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. While he was in Greece, Athens was his chief residence; and when, after having left that classic abode, he took up his quarters for a season in Russia, Catherine, with her accustomed anxiety to communicate to her subjects the instruction which foreigners were capable of affording, invited him to enter into her service: but his eagerness to contribute to the emancipation of Spanish America prevailed over every other consideration. Even at this early period of his career, the jealousy of the Spanish government was excited, as appears from the following letter from his travelling companion, Colonel Smith, of the American service:

'My Dear Friend, 'London, March 26th, 1788.

'As I have no accounts from you, of your having received the letters I wrote you from Paris, in November, 1785, *poste restante* at Rome, Naples, and Genoa, I must conclude they miscarried, and of course you as yet remain uninformed how exceedingly prudent it was in you not to have visited Paris with me at that time; indeed, I am perfectly convinced, if you had been with me, I should have been a painful witness to your distress and absolute imprisonment in the Bastile; and now it becomes me to explain the grounds upon which this decided opinion was formed. — After we parted at Vienna, on the 26th of October, 1785, I travelled with the greatest expedition, and was so fortunate as to fall in with a French officer and his servant, travelling in a Turkish dress from Constantinople to Paris, express. As our objects were similar, viz. to get to Paris with all possible dispatch, I invited the officer to take a seat with me, and permit my servant to travel with his, which he readily consented to; we moved with great diligence and expedition day and night, and arrived at Paris between 5 and 6 o'clock in the morning of Sunday, the 6th of November; we parted at the Barrier Gate, and I ordered my postillion to drive to the Hotel of Louis XVI. rue Richelieu. On my arriving, and asking the master of the house if I could be accommodated with apartments, he answered in the affirmative, but politely begged my name; on giving it, his countenance brightened, and bowing, he said he had expected the honour of seeing me ten days or a fortnight past, hoped I had an agreeable journey, and if I would do him the honour of following him, he would do himself the honour of shewing me my apartments. The prescience of the man, and his superabundant civility, you will doubtless conclude excited my curiosity, and induced me, after I had seen my apartments, to enquire how he came to know it was my intention to visit Paris, and particularly to put up at his house; he answered me, that Lieutenant-General ——— had informed him of it, and since called twice, to know whether I had arrived; and being very anxious to shew me every civility in his power, had requested to be informed the moment of my arrival, which, with my permission, he would instantly do. I gave the permission solicited, but was much perplexed to know who this lieutenant-general was, that had conceived such an affection for me. You will doubtless be solicitous to know how this man in Paris knew that I was travelling through Europe, and proposed visiting Paris in my way to London, and intended to take lodgings, during my stay, at the hotel of Louis XVI. rue Richelieu. It astonished me at the time, as much as the detail of it now can surprise you. I had never communicated it to any one, I had not even told you of it, for it was a matter of very little consequence; but on taking a retrospective view of what had passed, and referring to my memorandum book, I found, that one day at dinner with the Marquis de la Fayette, at Potsdam, in Prussia, when several French officers were at table, attended each by their respective servants, the Marquis recommended, when I came to Paris, that I should lodge at this hotel. Out of compliment to him, I took out my pocket book at table, and noted the name of the hotel and street, and never more thought on the subject, until the postillion, on entering Paris, asked me where he should drive. I then directed him to the place above-mentioned. From hence I conclude, the only way my intention could have been known, must have been by a communication from some one of those servants attending at the Marquis's table to this particular friend of mine, the lieutenant-general, or at his office; for I have since discovered, that French travelling servants keep more accurate journals than some of their masters, and are in the habit of reporting on their return (to the police) whatever they may suppose will ingratiate themselves with its officers, or yield them a few livres in return.

'After getting my breakfast and dressing myself, I waited on Mr. Jefferson, our minister at Paris, and in the course of conversation related the singular circumstance that had occurred on my arrival, and mentioned the name of the General (which I do not now recollect) who had been thus polite; and asked him if he recollected any one of that name who had served in America, for I could conceive of no other circumstance that could have made me known to a French General.

'Mr. Jefferson, laughing much, told me it was the *lieutenant-general of the police,* and hoped he did not intend further to display his partiality for me, by accommodating me with apartments in his palace, the Bastile. This tended further to excite my curiosity, rather than alarm my fears. But to proceed further with this curious detail—on my return to my lodgings in the evening, my servant Louis told me a gentleman had called and made inquiries after my health, and the health of the gentleman who travelled with me, and asked whether we lodged together. Louis, supposing he inquired after the Turkish officer who came with me to Paris, answered in the negative, and told him we had parted at the barrier gate, and that he did know where he lodged. He was then asked, whether it was the same gentleman who had set out with me from London, and was with me in Prussia. Louis said no; that that gentleman we had left at Vienna; that the other was one who had overtaken us on the road. He quite fretted the servant with his pointed inquiries, and doubts of the truth of what he told him; and refusing to leave his name, which the servant asked, said he would call again when his master would be at home.

'This interview between the visitor and my servant took place about twelve o'clock; about four in the afternoon, another person came. and in the porter's lodge, having formed an acquaintance with Louis, *pro hoc*, and having drank together, pressed further interrogatories relative to my companion; for it seems, my friend, it was *you* they hoped to see, and not me: but being constantly and honestly answered, that his master had left you at Vienna, I was not honoured by a visit from the lieutenant-general of the police, nor my servant further interrogated.

'The next day, I think, or in a very short time, I visited the Marquis de la Fayette, who scarcely gave himself time to salute me, before he exclaimed, "I hope to God, my dear friend, your companion, Col. Miranda, has not come with you!" I told him you had not, that I had left you at Vienna. He said he was extremely happy to hear it, and begged me, if I wrote, to insist upon your not coming to Paris; for if the Count d'Aranda should know you were in Paris, he (La Fayette) would be extremely apprehensive for your fate I immediately wrote you, agreeably to the address agreed on; and I think dated Paris, 10th of November, 1785, *poste restante* at Rome, Naples, and Genoa, to warn you of the impending cloud which I had noticed in this hemisphere, the threatening aspect of which I did not conceive you had a just idea of.'

Having finished his travels, Miranda took up his residence in London; and being introduced in the year 1790 to Mr. Pitt, by Governor Pownall, he communicated the project of American emancipation to that minister. It was received with great attention, and continued to enter seriously into the contemplation of the British cabinet as long as the differences respecting Nootka Sound prevailed between the two governments: but after these were definitively settled, and Miranda saw no prospect of the proposition being entertained on the part of Great Britain, he was induced to go over to Paris in 1792, and to await the opportunities which the chances of the Revolution might offer for the accomplishment of his favourite project. His military knowlege attracting the attention of Petion and other leaders, he was offered a command in the French army under Dumouriez; which he accepted, and quitted Paris, leaving the individuals at the head of the Republic in possession of his views, and impressing them strongly with their magnitude. He soon found that French ardour threatened to out-run all sober calculation. The government of the French part of St. Domingo falling vacant, Brissot became urgent with Miranda to accept of it, for the purpose of effecting a revolution in the Spanish colonies. "You alone," he wrote to Miranda, (p. 172.) "appear to me fit for the direction of this enterprize. Your name and your talents guarantee its success. I have laid open my views to all the ministers, and they are penetrated with their importance.—The moment is grand; if we permit it to pass, it may never return." Apprehensive lest the attempt should be made prematurely, Miranda replied that, being unacquainted with the state of St. Domingo, he was ill fitted to assume the government of it: but that for more particular information he referred to Dumouriez, who was then about to proceed to Paris. In the next month, Dumouriez having gone to Paris, and discussed the matter personally with the men in office, Brissot communicated to Miranda the postponement of the undertaking, in a letter of which the following is an extract, and which is remarkable for its reference to the origin of the last war, — a war which we were so often told was "just and necessary."

> "I have seen Dumouriez several times. He seems desirous of accompanying you on the expedition in question, and Spain is so much disposed to be neutral, that our government is averse to attack her. Besides, the approaching war with England attracts every eye and absorbs all our attention. To judge from appearances, it is inevitable; yet when we consider that at bottom *no sound reason for it can be urged, and that on the contrary the English nation is reaping immense profits while we are fighting*, we are astonished at such extravagance on the part of the Cabinet of St. James's. Whatever its intentions are, we must meet them, and we are making preparations accordingly."

The commencement of the campaign in the Low Countries soon gave complete occupation to all parties, and obliged them to adjourn the discussion of the South American expedition. On the loss of the battle of Neerwinden, Dumouriez sought, as is well known, to exculpate himself by laying the blame on Miranda; an accusation which led to a public trial of the latter at Paris. Miranda was triumphantly acquitted: but the reign of Robespierre taking place soon afterward, he was deprived of his liberty, and committed to the prison of La Force. A fellow-prisoner, M. Champagneux, having in an edition of Madame Roland's works given an account of what passed in this gloomy retreat, we select the following passage from the extract of Champagneux's work as printed by the editor of the present volume:

> "Those frightful doors, which were shut on me for the first time, impressed me with a degree of horror which I am unable to describe. I was first led into a court which served as a walk for the prisoners, and I there saw collected about a hundred individuals, as unlike in dress and figure as in the state of feeling which they respectively discovered. I recognized among the number General Miranda, Custine the younger, General Lecuyer, Adam Lux, and the deputies Vergniaud and Valazé. — How often does our ignorance of the future beguile our calculations by flattering us with the hope of advantage in events, which, if realized, would lead to our ruin! I

was of the number of those who wished for a removal to the Luxemburg; and I mentioned my plan to Miranda, who very fortunately dissuaded me from it: for the chance is that I should have been exhibited as an actor in the fabulous conspiracy which was invented to justify the death of almost all the prisoners in the Luxemburg.

"Having named Miranda, I shall endeavour to give some account of this foreigner. A native of Spanish America, this man had, at the age of forty-two, traversed the whole civilized world; and he had acquired in his travels a variety of knowlege, and an acquaintance with several languages, which he spoke with fluency. Having come to France in 1792, he proposed to remain among us, and connected himself with Petion, and other deputies of the same class, to whom he had brought over introductions from England.

"Miranda prepossessed in his behalf all the friends of liberty, by declaring his plan of establishing it in his native country. He had first communicated the design to the Empress of Russia, and afterward to Pitt, with the view of obtaining their support. He had been favourably treated by both, but he expected much more from France, since freedom had begun to inspire her. The Girondists, who had at that time great influence, promised to serve Miranda, and offered him in the meanwhile a command in the armies. This was at the time when the Prussians had advanced into Champagne. Being named General of Division, he made the campaign of 1792, and the first part of that of 1793. He was a partaker in the honour of expelling the allies from the French territories, and of conquering the Austrian Low Countries: but fortune became afterward unpropitious to him. The failure of the blockade of Maestricht, and the loss of the battle of Neerwinden, where Miranda commanded the left wing, which was very roughly handled, joined to the fall of his political friends, the Girondists, lowered him in the public esteem. He was considered as an accomplice of Dumouriez, and was brought before the Revolutionary tribunal. That monstrous institution was then in its infancy, and still preserved some of the forms which protect innocence and virtue. Miranda's case was debated during eleven sittings. The public, at first prejudiced against him, soon became extremely interested in his behalf. His rule was to make each witness for the prosecution undergo a cross examination, which ended almost always in favour of the prisoner. He was acquitted by the unanimous voice of his judges, each member of the court passing an eulogy on him; and this General, for whose head the public had been clamouring some days before, was carried to his house in triumph.

"Miranda, however, did not long enjoy his victory over his enemies. He had retired to a country-house near Paris, where he made a display of rich collections of books, engravings, paintings, and statues, which he had formed in his travels; and here he was suddenly arrested by an armed force sent by the Commune of Paris, of which Pache was then the leader. He was discharged, but arrested a second time, and confined in the prison of La Force as a suspected character.

"Conversation full of interest, extensive information, and the profession of the most rigid virtue, made me prefer Miranda's society to that of all the other prisoners. We contrived to occupy adjoining rooms, and passed daily some hours together in talking over our studies, our course of reading, our personal situation, and the state of public affairs. His pursuits were chiefly military; he had collected all the authors of eminence on this subject, historians as well as theorists; and never did I hear a man speak on tactics with so much depth and solidity.

"I had received such different accounts of this foreigner's feeling towards France, that I often led our conversation to that topic. He always appeared to me to have little esteem for our nation, and to be prepossessed in favour of England, especially of the English constitution. I was sure of creating a warm discussion, sometimes even an angry one, when, in talking of the relative superiority of the two nations, I insisted on claiming it for the French. He denied it to us in every respect, declaring the English constitution to be the best that the world had as yet seen; that England was the only spot on which civil liberty was enjoyed in its plenitude, and opinions could be freely interchanged without danger; while trade and agriculture were there carried to an extent which no other country had hitherto reached.

"Miranda had a thorough detestation of the men who had at that time usurped the French Government. When he spoke of Robespierre, of Danton, Collot, Barrère, Billaud, and other founders of revolutionary tyranny, his language was full of rage and indignation. If I happened at any time to perceive a ray of hope, or to attribute a good intention to any of their measures, he never forgave me such expressions; he abused me as a flatterer, a slave, a supporter of tyranny; and he loaded me with a thousand epithets, which left no room to doubt his zeal for liberty, and his attachment to the governments which protected it."

A considerable part of the volume is occupied with documents calculated to prove that General Miranda was not the cause of the loss of the battle of Neerwinden: but the anxiety thus evinced by the editor we cannot help regarding as superfluous, the matter having been long settled by the acquittal of the General on his trial at Paris, and by a still less suspicious declaration, the Austrian official account of the engagement.

After the fall of Robespierre, Miranda was released from prison, and was consulted by the leaders of the *Modérés* on various questions of war and internal regulation. His opinion on one of the most important of these discussions, having been fortunately published in the shape of a pamphlet, has been preserved, and is the paper which, of all that are contained in the present volume, has afforded us the greatest satisfaction. It was intitled *Opinion du Général Miranda sur la situation actuelle de la France*, and embraces two great considerations,—the establishment of a constitution for France, and the conclusion of a peace with its neigbours. We extract some of its most interesting passages :

" *Constitution* —In truth, to aim at peace is to aim at the establishment of a regular government, and *vice versâ*. Foreign powers will place no dependence on the treaties which we conclude with them, as long as one faction, taking the place of another, may cancel the act of its predecessor. It is only by a judicious division of power that stability is given to a government. The constituted authorities are then rendered the guardians of each other, each being interested in the support of the constitution in virtue of which they exist : but, if all power be united in a single body, a part of this body will find itself enabled to arrogate the whole authority ; and a faction has only to point its batteries against this, the then sovereign power, in order to accomplish a revolution. The 31st of May and the 9th of Thermidor both allowed the same Convention to continue in existence, although both changed the appearance of the government ; the fact was, the power was only put into different hands ; and to this fatal confusion of powers the hideous tyranny of Robespierre owed its existence.

" Two conditions are indispensable to complete independence in the powers of the State ;—the first, that there be only a single source from which they emanate ; the second, that they exercise a mutual vigilance over each other. The people would not be *sovereign*, if one of the constituted powers which represent it did not emanate from it ; and there would be no independence if the one created the other. If, for example, you were to vest in the Legislative body the power of naming the members of the Executive, it would exercise a fatal influence on them, and political liberty would be at an end. — Or, were they to have the nomination of the judges, they would interfere with the impartiality of judicial decisions ; and an end would be put to civil liberty. Accordingly, in England, where the executive power possesses great influence in the legislature, political liberty suffers considerable diminution : but the judicial power, though elected by the executive, is independent of its fatal influence, because juries are named from among the people, and because the judges are not liable to be removed. Civil liberty has thus been preserved entire in England."—

" *Peace* —The confidence which foreign powers will have in our new government will be the surest means of leading to conferences, which will at last give peace to Europe and tranquillity to the state : but it is incumbent on us to proclaim aloud the principles of justice and moderation which will henceforwards regulate France, now that she has recovered her liberty. Justice is the consolidation of a state ; leagues are formed by nations against an usurping people, as naturally as among the inhabitants of a country against an usurping individual. The thirst of conquest is unworthy of a republic founded on the respect due to the rights of man, and on the sublime maxims of philosophy. The Cæsars, the Alexanders, and their imitators, would be dangerous citizens of such a state ; the peaceable philosopher, and the upright magistrate, are men much more necessary for her, since they are of service to her on all occasions.

"The extent of France offers means more than sufficient for the defence of its liberty and independence, and additional acquisitions would only add to the embarrassments of a government already very complicated, in a country of vast extent, and desirous of remaining a democracy. Such acquisitions would afford her no profit, and would only excite against her the jealousy of all her neighbours. To make a formal disavowal of all ambitious claims, and to declare that France will confine herself to her antient limits, with the addition of some fortresses retained for the purpose of giving security to our frontier, and preserving it from insult: such ought to be the first diplomatic proceedings of the new Fren[illegible]nt; and, since its maxim is to permit no foreign interfer[illegible]ernal affairs, it should lay down a rule also to avoid int[illegible]e affairs of other countries.

"Luxemburg, Mons, Tou[illegible]ort, Kaisers-Lautern, Germesheim, and some other pl[illegible] same line, will give us a much stronger frontier than i[illegible] extend it all the way to the Rhine. The Alps, the [illegible]d the sea, should form the other limits of France: the [illegible]when mountains constitute the barrier, to take the cours[illegible]ent of streams as the line of demarcation. The inhab[illegible] country between our frontier and the Rhine should be [illegible] and independent, friends and allies of the French peop[illegible]ill thus form a double barrier to us, guarding us against all [illegible]een attacks; and their independence being guaranteed by France as well as by the other powers, their tranquillity may be safely presumed. In that case, under French protection, we may expect to see the enjoyment of liberty produce among that simple and industrious population an acquisition of happiness and prosperity, similar to that which was exemplified in the case of Holland.

"A peace founded on such a basis would repair in some measure the injuries which the French have committed on mankind. It would remedy all the bad effects of the treaty of Westphalia, and would give the protestant part of Germany that influence to which it is intitled by its extensive information, and its attachment to the true principles of liberty. It would render the result of this war as beneficial to humanity as that of former wars have been fatal to it.

> "*Tunc genus humanum positis sibi consulat armis*
> *Inque vicem gens omnis amet.*" VIRGIL.

On the revolution of the 4th September 1797, which confirmed the usurpation of the Directory, and banished Carnot, Barthélémi, and the other enlightened characters who were connected with the French government, Miranda was included in the proscription: but not being put under arrest, he found means, a few months afterward, to make his way to England, where he was favourably received by Mr. Pitt. This country being then at war with Spain, and the Spanish Americans having given fresh proofs of their anxiety for independence, a plan was projected for combining the forces of Britain with those of the United States, in the prosecution of this important enterprize. In spring 1798, the preparations were so far advanced, and General Miranda was so full of expectation, that he thus wrote to his American friend, General Hamilton, who afterward fell in a duel with Burr. "It appears that the moment of our emancipation approaches, and that the establishment of liberty throughout the continent of the new world is intrusted to us by Providence. The only danger, in my apprehension, will be from the introduction of French principles, which would poison our liberty at its birth, and end by overturning your's." For the particulars of the arrangement at that time in forwardness, Miranda referred his correspondent to a person who was about to proceed from England to America. Hamilton's answer was as follows:

'Sir, 'New York, August 22, 1798.

'I have lately received, by duplicates, your letter of the 6th of April, with a postscript of the 9th of June. The gentleman you mention in it has not made his appearance to me, nor do I know of his arrival in this country; so that I can only divine the object from the hints in your letter.

'The sentiments I entertain with regard to that object have been long since in your knowledge; but I could personally have no participation in it, unless patronised by the government of this country. It was my wish that matters had been ripened for a cooperation in the course of this fall, on the part of this country; but this can now scarce be the case. The winter, however, may mature the project, and an effectual co-operation by the United States may take place. In this case I shall be happy, in my official station, to be an instrument of so good a work.

'The plan, in my opinion, ought to be a fleet of Great Britain, an army of the United States—a government for the liberated territories, agreeable to both the co-operators, about which there will be probably no difficulty. To arrange the plan, a competent authority from Great Britain to some person here, is the best expedient. Your presence here will, in this case, be extremely essential.

'We are raising an army of about 12,000 men General Washington has resumed his station at the head of our armies; I am appointed second in command.

'With esteem and regard I remain,
Dear Sir,
Your very obedient servant,
(Signed) A. Hamilton.'

The project, however, of combining England and America in this enterprize, was destined to the same abortive fate as the preceding attempts. It was suspended, and ultimately given up; and a subsequent plan, intended for execution in 1801 by the forces of England alone, was relinquished in consequence of the signature of the preliminaries of peace with France. On the resumption of hostilities with Spain in 1804, the plan was again under consideration: but the coalition of 1805 absorbing both the attention of our ministers and the disposable force of the country, Miranda was induced to proceed to the United States, in the hope of deriving advantage from the disputes which were then depending between them and Spain on the subject of Louisiana. On his arrival, however, in America, he found that the difference was accommodated; that he could expect no aid from the government of the United States, and must either desist from any attempt, or embark in it with the limited means supplied by a few private individuals. Stimulated by the ardent representations of the refugees from Caraccas, who were settled in North America, he adopted the latter alternative, and made the attempt: but his force, unassisted as it was by the British, proved altogether inadequate. For a particular account of this enterprize, we refer our readers to our Number for March 1809, Vol. lviii. After his failure, Miranda repaired to Trinidad, where he remained till he was recalled to England in the end of 1807. To judge from the preparations which succeeded his return to this country, the ministry appeared to be more zealous in the design than any of their predecessors; yet, by a fatality peculiar to this project, the revolution in Spain broke out at the moment when an English expedition for America was ready, and gave a new direction to our forces. After Spain rose up in arms against Bonaparte, in course all hostile ideas on the part of Great Britain towards her colonies were abandoned; and the only documents, subsequent to that event, with which the present volume presents us, are Miranda's correspondence from London with the leading men in Spanish America. Of that correspondence, the most remarkable feature is its accuracy of prediction in regard to the issue of the contest in Old Spain; Miranda never appearing to have indulged those sanguine hopes of successful resistance to the military power of Bonaparte, which at one time were so general among our countrymen.

The policy now observed by our ministry, in regard to the efforts of the Spanish Americans to shake off the connection with the mother-country, appears to be that of complete impartiality. The dread of weakening the antipathy of the Spaniards to Bonaparte, and a solicitude to act up with the strictest fidelity to our treaties with the Junta, have operated as paramount considerations, and have induced our government to forego for a season the splendid advantages which the emancipation of these colonies holds forth to our commerce: but of the real wishes of the enlightened part of our countrymen, whether in or out of office, we can have only one opinion; all must desire an early termination of that discouraging and degrading servitude, which has so long prevented the finest portion of the globe from attaining the enjoyment of internal prosperity, and from distributing a rich surplus of produce to the Eastern hemisphere. We believe that it is very far from the language of exaggeration to say that Spanish America would make a greater progress in art and science, in population, agriculture, and trade, in the course of thirty years of independence, than she has effected in the three hundred during which she has been subject to the monopoly of Old Spain. No system could have been more calculated to arrest the progress of improvement. In Spain, the corruption of government was in some measure mitigated by existing vestiges of antient liberty, and by the restraints of European civilization: but in America the reign of despotism was absolute, and the Catholic religion was made an engine for consolidating the duration of ignorance and blind submission. Under this system, as is the case under monopolies in general, it was seriously believed that the mother-country was a great gainer; and whenever the day of emancipation may arrive, we may expect to hear it asserted that the grandeur of Spain is at an end. It happened, however, that a similar prediction was made with regard to England after the independence of North America; yet the fact has been that not a year has since passed, in which our gains from the United States have not been greater than when those States were under our controul. The cause is simply this: — the possession of independence doubles and triples the productive powers of a country, and creates an equally rapid augmentation in the profits of those who trade with her: — but to give full scope to this course of prosperity, no political or commercial preferences must be shewn to one nation above another. Even were England the sole agent in achieving the independence of Spanish America, it would be great impolicy on our part to lay claim to exclusive favours. To force the Americans to take from us any particular article of trade, which they can obtain cheaper elsewhere, would be to make them sacrifice a part of their capital, and lessen the amount which they would afterward be enabled to buy from us in the proper line of our supply. Let us say, then, in the words of Talleyrand's valuable Essay on Colonies, "The dictates of mutual interest should be the only bond of connection; every other, between distant countries, is delusive: let there be no compulsion, no monopoly; always a force to protect, but never a force to controul." Were the trade of the southern colonies of America open, like that of the north, to all the world, the nations

bility, be speedily greater under th
trade than it ever was in her days
in the civilized world would thus
passage of Spanish America from a
of independence.

With regard to the execution of
that the editor has aimed at littl
having contented himself with exhi
dom indulged in comments at lengt
method adopted for the arrangement
we have been highly gratified by the
selves; many of which are of equal
which we have presented extracts.

Art. IV. *Epistles on Women*, exempl
Condition, in various Ages and Na
Poems. By Lucy Aikin. 4to. 12

Miss Aikin shall introduce herself

'To mark the effect of various code
manners, on the virtue and happiness of
and proportional elevation or depressio
existence, is the general plan of this wo
arrangement, I may remark that, as a str
incompatible with the design of tracing
ciety, not in one country alone, but in m
advisable to form to myself such an one as
own peculiar purposes, moral and poetica
any early people in a ruder state than so

of ancient Germany, indeed, we possess an unrivalled portraiture; but, in the age of Tacitus, most of them had already risen far above the lowest stage of human society; and the progenitors of the noblest nations of modern Europe ought not to be classed with families of men whose name has perished from the earth, or wandering hordes of which we do not yet know whether or not they contain a living seed of future greatness.'—

* * * * * *

' Nothing could in my opinion be more foolish than the attempt to engage our sex in the struggle for stations that they are physically unable properly to fill; for power of which they must always want the means to possess themselves. No! instead of aspiring to be inferior men, let us content ourselves with becoming noble women: but let not sex be carried into every thing. Let the impartial voice of History testify for us, that, when permitted, we have been the worthy associates of the best efforts of the best of men; let the daily observation of mankind bear witness, that no talent, no virtue, is masculine alone; no fault or folly exclusively feminine; that there is not an endowment, or propensity, or mental quality of any kind, which may not be derived from her father to the daughter; to the son from his mother. These positions once established, and carried into their consequences, will do every thing for woman. Perceiving that any shaft aimed at her, must strike in its recoil on some vulnerable part of common human nature, the Juvenals and Popes of future ages will abstain from making her the butt of scorn or malice. Feeling with gratitude of what her heart and mind are capable, the scholars, the sages, and the patriots of coming days will treat her as a sister and a friend.'

To these detached extracts from Miss Aikin's sensible preface, we might add others, illustrative of her design, and deprecatory of that too probable misunderstanding to which the composition of a woman, advocating the cause of her sex, may be exposed. We are as anxious to assist the present fair writer in removing this obstacle to the success of her moral intentions, as we were lately to aid another lady * in the same noble design; — namely, that of convincing man how ' impossible it is for him to degrade his companion without degrading himself; or to elevate her without receiving a proportional accession of dignity and happiness;' — and moreover, we know not one feminine attraction or accomplishment which may not co-exist with the greatest cultivation of the female mind; nor one duty, peculiarly belonging to the softer sex, of which the fulfilment will not be farther secured by such cultivation. If we remove but the fear of neglecting the Graces by a closer worship of the Muses, we shall have removed the chief impediment in the way of an enlarged and more liberal education of our females. Let us consider the excellent arguments adduced for such an improvement by every enlightened writer on the subject, and add to those arguments the examples of the best educated women in every age and country. We shall hear them all with one voice confess the proper sphere for the exercise of their abilities, namely the sphere of domestic duty; — and then let us be ashamed to reply with unmanly ridicule, or still more disgraceful calumny, to such accumulated claims on the justice, policy, and generosity of man in giving every artificial aid to those abilities which, Nature seems to whisper, were not originally constituted inferior to his own.

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* See our Review of the posthumous volumes of Miss Elizabeth Smith, Number for January last.

The general style of Miss Aikin's poem is elegant and correct: but it contains passages, undoubtedly, which deserve neither of these characters; and as we shall select some of the best specimens of the fair writer's manner, so we shall feel it incumbent on us to point out her defects. Wishing, however, to leave the same impression on our readers that the work has made on ourselves, we shall begin with our objections, and conclude with our favourable remarks.

In the first epistle, (page 3.) the terminations of four successive lines are unpleasingly similar: 'Morn,' 'scorn;' 'adorns,' 'thorns.'

'Superior wisdom then I grant, of *course*,' (page 5.) is a line which needs only to be transcribed to ensure its condemnation. The phrase 'Rapturous flutterings,' (page 8.) is indistinct rhapsody, if not unintelligible nonsense: at all events, it is "*sentimental grammar*;" a species of licence which we cannot suffer to pass current, even in the charity of criticism; because it is not only so decided but so successful a foe to *philosophical grammar*.—We must do Miss Aikin the justice to say that she rarely trespasses in this manner.

'Fire celestial *sparkles from his breast*,' (page 11.) is again an ambiguous statement, if not a description of an impossibility. Ibid, 'The youth,' applied to Adam, so much shocked our prejudices, that we recollected the proverbial allusion to Adam's age, with tenfold vivacity: — but is it prejudice, or a reasonable delicacy of taste, that makes every allusion to Adam's and Eve's courtship border on the ridiculous? This it is, which even in Milton's most sacred scenes of love induces a feeling of something incongruous; and this it is, which adds inexpressible oddity to De Lille's previously absurd address of "*Ma douce Amie!*"—a most happy apostrophe in the mouth of Adam!

We turn with pleasure to our task of selecting some good passages from these epistles. After the angels, who are supposed to be present at Eve's creation, have been depicted as singing a prophetic strain, the description thus proceeds:

> ‘In smiling wonder fixt, the new-born bride
> Drank the sweet gale, the glowing landscape eyed,
> And murmured untried sounds, and gazed on every side.
> With look benign the boding Angels view
> The fearless innocent, and *wave adieu:*
> Too well thy daughters shall our strain believe,
> Too short thy dream of bliss, ill-fated Eve.’

The expression in italics is, perhaps, not strictly defensible, but the whole passage is pleasing; and the following, we think, is still more fortunate. We have purposely contrasted the portraits:

> ‘See where the world's new master roams along,
> Vainly intelligent and idly strong;
> Mark his long listless step and torpid air,
> His brow of densest gloom and fixt *infantile stare!*
> Those sullen lips no mother's lips have prest,
> Nor drawn, sweet labour! at her kindly breast;
> No mother's *voice* has *touched* that *slumbering* ear,
> Nor glistening eye beguiled him a tear;
> Love nursed not him with sweet endearing wiles,
> Nor woman taught the sympathy of smiles;
> Vacant and sad his rayless glances roll,
> Nor hope nor joy illumes his darkling soul;
> Ah! hapless world that such a wretch obeys!
> Ah! joyless Adam, though a world he sways!
>
> ‘But see!....they meet,....they gaze,....the new-born pair;...
> Mark now the wakening youth, the wondering fair:
> Sure a new soul that moping idiot warms,
> Dilates his stature, and his mien informs!
> A brighter crimson tints his glowing cheek;
> His broad eye kindles, and his glances speak.
> So roll the clouds from some vast mountain's head,
> Melt into mist, and down the valleys spread;
> His crags and caves the bursting sunbeams light,
> And burn and blaze upon his topmost height;
> Broad in full day he lifts his towering crest,
> And fire celestial sparkles *from* his breast.
> Eve too, how *changed!*....No more with baby grace
> The smile runs dimpling o'er her trackless face,
> As painted meads invite her roving glance,
> Or birds with liquid trill her ear intrance:
> With downcast look she stands, abasht and meek,
> Now pale, now rosy red, her varying cheek;
> Now first her fluttering bosom heaves a sigh,
> Now first a tear stands trembling in her eye;
> For hark! the youth, as love and nature teach,
> Breathes his full bosom, and breaks forth in *speech:*

more than most

‘ Where untaught Natur

(page 17.) is a mere vulgari
(page 19.) is scarcely better.

‘ Inflames and chills, and

is a line which will meet with
in all who peruse it ;—and the

‘ Now to Heav’n upsoar’d
Now *blazed* some humble

applied to King David’s harp, (
rately used for *blazon’d*,) is too s
In the picture of the North Am
introduced, which are perhaps too
neation either of painter or of po
about to destroy her female child,
its suffering the same miseries w
enced. Miss Aikin has, however, c
ment ; and she is but too well
historical authorities :

“ Swift, swift,” she cries, “ re
Die, *little wretch* ; die once an
Why shouldst thou live, in toil
To curse the names of mother
To see at large thy lordly mast
The beasts his portion and the
Whilst thou, infirm, the shelter
Poorly dependent, timorously w
There hush thy

Ah! would for me, by like indulgent doom,
A mother's hand had rais'd the early tomb!
O'er these poor bones the moons had rolled in vain,
And brought nor stripes nor famine, toil nor pain;
I had not sought in agony the wild,
Nor, wretched, frantic mother! killed my child!"

At page 24. we find an animated passage, on a subject which indeed requires poetical ability to adorn it with any thing new in thought or expression. We allude to the Slave-Trade;—and Miss Aikin may claim a distinguished place among those of its humane enemies, who have appealed to the hearts (if they have hearts,) of its unfeeling friends. After having described the agony of a mother on the sale of her son to slavery, and her unavailing prayer to her husband, the poem thus forcibly continues:

'On to the mart the sable tyrant drives
His flocks of children, and his herds of wives;
For toys, for drams, their kindred blood is sold,
And broken female hearts are paid with gold;
Exulting Avarice gripes his struggling prize;
The Savage tenders, and the Christian buys!'

This epistle concludes also with a very poetic denial of the real existence of that state of connubial happiness in a rude and simple life, which poetry has delighted to imagine:

'No!—vain the search—of warm poetic birth,
Arcadian blossoms scorn the fields of earth;
No love lorn swains, to tender griefs a prey,
Sigh, sing, and languish through the live-long day;
No rapturous husband and enamour'd wife,
To live and love their only care in life,
With crook and scrip on flowery banks reclined,
Breathe the warm heart, and share the answering mind.'—
&c. &c. &c.

The third epistle opens in a vigorous strain, and worthy of its object,—the dawn of civilization, of freedom, and of the virtues. A striking sketch of the manners of Greece and Rome succeeds; and the present degraded state of the antient seats of glory and of genius is forcibly depicted. The condition of woman throughout is shewn to follow and to imitate the course of man. The promulgation of Christianity is justly hailed as a new security for the interests of woman: but the light which breaks in on her prospects from this quarter is suddenly obscured by the frightful appearance of Superstition, and all her dark train of monastic privations and penances.

Among the faults of this portion of the poem, we have to notice the following.—Page 32. contains a very aukward, and to us an inexplicable, parenthesis:

‘ Bright as the welcome orb that wakes to chase
The polar night from earth's reviving face —
(*Grim Power, that ſhakes the meteor from his hair,*
While ſhaggy prowlers in the fitful glare
Roam with rude yells along the mountains drear,
Ravening and yet undisciplined to fear)
Behold, my friend, with pleased and anxious gaze
Fair Reason's day-star light her gradual blaze,' &c. &c.

This, we confess, sounds to us as grand and as incomprehensible as any of the harangues of Antient Pistol. At page 34. too, we have another specimen of bombast;

‘ These were the days, while yet the scourge and chain
Quivered and clank'd in wild War's demon train.'—

The omission of the article in a passage at p. 35. ‘yet selfsame clay,' &c. is an error which this fair author should leave to more licentious writers: she is every way superior to the use of such paltry supports to a feeble and defective style.—‘Vampire forms' (39.) are unintelligible, without a reference to the Annual Register, and a full perusal of the story of the Dead Men of Pest.—‘Awake,' in the same place, is used for *awaken:*—but perhaps the quantity rather than the quality of precedents will be pleaded on this as on other occasions.—‘The barbarous brood of spoil and war,' (p. 43.) or the Northern conquerors of Rome, are described, we think, in terms which approximate to the Bathos:

‘ Nearer and nearer yet, with harpy *ruſh*
They sweep; they pounce, they violate, they crush;
Flap their triumphant wings o'er grovelling Rome,
And *rooſt* in Glory's desolated home.'

The conclusion, perhaps, redeems the former part of this passage. The ghosts of some noble Romans, Brutus, Portia, Pætus, Arria, &c. have been before introduced on the scene:

‘ Scared at the portent, see the phantom train
Veil their wreathed brows; then, rising in disdain,
With thunders borne upon the howling wind,
Leave Rome and all her infamy behind.'

This description is general and striking: but the minute particularity of the foregoing destroys all the effect of poetry; which, as an excellent critic observed, delights only in large appearances. We must remark also the obvious and unpleasing alliteration of the lines, page 46.:

' ——— explore on venturous wing
The wastes of winter and the wilds of spring.'

The beauties of this Epistle are numerous. We have already mentioned the opening lines with due praise; and the descriptions of the Trojan Captive, of the Spartan Mother, and especially the contrast between the matrons of Antient Rome and its succeeding race of abandoned empresses or voluptuous devotees, equally demand our approbation. We observe indeed an occasional sprinkling of some cheap and hackneyed mythology, which had better have been omitted; such as,

'The dire Bellona and the warrior God,
'The golden Archer, and chaste Huntress Queen,'

'Jove-born Pallas, and the Thunderer,': &c. but on the whole much good sense, and much good poetry, appear in this as in every other part of the work.—We could point out several strong couplets, but we prefer to give a fuller display of the writer's poetical talents, and therefore select the passage in which, after having dwelt on the nobler value which the Christian promises of future happiness gave to the union of the sexes, the author laments the fatal blight of these fair hopes by the monastic institutions:

'And thee, O woman, formed with smiling mien
To temper man, and guild the social scene,—
Bid home-born blessings, home-born virtues rise,
And light the sunbeam in a husband's eyes,—
Thy dearest bliss the sound of infant mirth,
His heart thy chief inheritance on earth,—
Thee too, as fades around heaven's blessed light,
And age to age rolls on a darker night,
With steely gripe the exulting hag invades,
And drags relentless to her sullen shades.
O hear the sighs that break the sluggish air
Mixt with the convent hymn, the convent prayer,
The languid lip-devotion of despair!
But ne'er could cloister rule or midnight bell,
Penance, or fast, in dank and lonesome cell,
Break the mind's spring, or stupefy to rest
The master-passion of an ardent breast.
In that dim cell the rapt Theresa lies
Ingulft and lost in speechless ecstasies;
All-powerful love has lit the holy flame,
The fuel altered, but the fire the same.'

In the fourth Epistle, Miss Aikin takes a wide survey of the female character in various ages and countries; dilating, however, most largely on times comparatively modern; and marking the deadly effects of polygamy in the East, and the equally destructive corruption of female manners arising from the gallantry of the more brilliant western courts. This Gallantry is admirably personified; as well as the chaster form of Chivalry. The heroism of the Swiss women, in the last invasion of their country, is aptly introduced; and even in France, 'although not pure enough for freedom,' as it is justly remarked, some heroines are discovered:

> 'But blest the land, where ages glide away,
> And not a single heroine starts to day:
> '*Tis angry skies* must nurse that daring form,
> As billows rock the petrel of the storm:
> Domestic virtue, femininely frail,
> Courts the pure azure, and the summer gale;
> A brooding halcyon, on her island-nest,
> Lulled on old Neptune's pleased pacific breast.
> Such lot is ours, so rests our rock-bound isle,
> A soft asylum reared in Ocean's smile.
> Thither fond Fancy flies, with busy care
> Decks forth the scene, and paints it fresh and fair;
> Soft Memory comes, adds every touching grace,
> The form familiar, and the well-known face;
> Quick beats my heart, mine eyes with rapture stream,
> And truth and daylight burst upon my dream.'

By this pleasing transition, we are brought home to England; and, as is most natural, the fair writer here puts forth all her strength.—After a brief but affectionate tribute to her friends, she continues to

> 'Trace English manners with an English heart.
> But not alone one fleeting speck of time
> Shall flash in my contemporary rhyme:
> Our sex's honour, and our country's weal,
> Past or to come, this patriot breast must feel;
> O'er the long lapse of years these eyes must roll,
> And all its mazes agitate my soul;
> For, who that marks along the valley gleam,
> The silver waves of some majestic stream,' &c. &c.

We have not room for the close of this passage, which contains a simile that is, to our apprehension, equally appropriate and original. — We are now invited to view, with a rapid *coup d'œil*, the distinguished female characters who have adorned our annals. Several heroic names are mentioned: 'but few our Amazons', as the writer does not seem reluctant to observe.—She dwells with true pleasure on the offspring of a more cultivated state of society; on the daughter of Sir Thomas More; on the gentle Lady Jane Grey; and, with a mixture of triumph and of shame, on the Maiden Queen.

The widow and the historian of Colonel Hutchinson, and the excellent Lady Russell, receive their highly merited panegyric; and then, after having nobly exhorted the sons of fair Albion to appreciate and to act on the claims of the female understanding, the poetess thus bids farewell to the daughters of her country:

> 'For you, bright daughters of a land renowned,
> By genius blest, by glorious freedom crowned,
> Safe in a polish'd privacy, content
> To grace, not shun, the lot that Nature lent,
> Be yours the joys of home, affection's charms,
> And infants clinging with caressing arms:
> Yours too the boon, of Taste's whole garden free,
> To pluck at will her bright Hesperian tree;
> Uncheck'd the wreath of each fair Muse assume,
> And fill your lap with amaranthine bloom.
>
> * * * * * *
>
> * * * * * *
>
> Strikes the pure bard his old romantic lyre?
> Let high Belphœbe warm, let Amoret sweet inspire.
> Does History speak? drink in her loftiest tone,
> And be Cornelia's virtues all your own.
> Thus self-endowed, thus armed for every state,
> Improve, excel, surmount, subdue your fate!
> So shall at length enlighten'd Man efface
> That slavish stigma, seared on half the race,
> His rude forefather's shame; and pleased confess,
> 'Tis yours to elevate, 'tis your's to bless;
> Your interest one with his; your hopes the same;
> Fair peace in life, in death undying fame,
> And bliss in worlds beyond, the species' general aim.
> "Rise," shall he cry, "O woman, rise! be free!
> My life's associate, now partake with me;
> Rouse thy keen energies, expand thy soul,
> And see, and feel, and comprehend the whole;
> My deepest thoughts, intelligent, divide;
> When right confirm me, and when erring guide;
> Soothe all my cares, in all my virtues blend,
> And be, my sister, be at length my friend."—

We will not lessen the effect of this conclusion by recording any of the little verbal criticisms which occurred to us in re-perusing the last epistle; and we dismiss the poem by expressing the warmest wish that the good, the philosophical, and the patriotic design of its writer may not wholly be frustrated: but that the great truth, to the support of which her pen has devoted itself, may impress some few out of the many who will peruse these epistles, with its importance: stamping the moral of her song on every intellect that is vigorous enough to receive and tenacious enough to retain it:

> 'Man, stamp the moral on thy haughty mind:
> Degrade the sex, and thou degrad'st the kind!
>
> * * * * * *
>
> ——— Be generous then!—unbind
> Your barbarous shackles, loose the female mind;
> Aid its new flights, instruct its wavering wing,
> And guide its thirst to Wisdom's purest spring;
> Sincere as generous, with fraternal heart,
> Spurn the dark satirist's unmanly part;
> Scorn too the flatterer's, in the medium wise,
> Nor feed those follies that yourselves despise.'

We have considered the chief subject of this production as of such paramount consequence, that we have dwelt on it even at the risque of some repetition; and we are now restricted by our limits to a very cursory notice of the minor poems which are subjoined to the principal composition. They are, indeed, very inferior to it in every point of view; and although some few parts of them display the same clearness and correctness of thought and the same force of language that are observable in the more finished passages of the epistles, yet, on the whole, they exhibit a larger proportion of inaccuracies and defects. Every reader of the volume will, we think, be ready to shew the same preference, and to say,

> "*Mallem de flumine magno*
> *Quàm ex hoc fonticulo tantundem sumere.*"

Art. V. *Practical Piety*; or the Influence of the Religion of the Heart on the Conduct of the Life. By Hannah More. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 556. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

A QUIBBLING gentleman, having been asked his opinion of Mrs. *More's Practical Piety*, replied that it contained *more* piety than could be *practised*. The great majority of this lady's readers will probably be of the same opinion; and, notwithstanding the good writing, the serious spirit, the impressive reflections, and the numerous moral lessons, which these volumes display, we suspect that they will excite discouragement instead of satisfaction: that they will impress the idea of the impossibility of religion, rather than induce a hope of succeeding in the attempt to gain it; and that the mass of mankind will be inclined to think, if Mrs. More's requisites for the formation of the character be correct, that no real Christian (except one) ever did or can exist under the sun. It appears to us, indeed, that in certain points she has pushed the matter to an unjustifiable extreme, and has represented the true Christian to be a character as much beyond the reach of humanity, as the ideal wise man of the Stoics; for to annihilate self-love is as impossible as to annihilate the passions and affections.

It is unfortunate, too, that the prominent doctrine, on which this lady attempts to erect the sublimest system of practical piety, is (as we think) very ill calculated to support such a superstructure. She informs us, indeed, in the preface, that 'she has avoided, as far as Christian sincerity permits, all controverted topics, and has shunned whatever might lead to disputation rather than profit:' but the style and mode of her opening convey an indirect invitation to controversy; and by laying down a principle which she knows will not be granted, she vitiates at the commencement all her subsequent reasoning. That which she assumes as a fact is rather an argument for not expecting any refined and high-toned morality from human beings, than a ground for addressing them with calls to holiness. According to Mrs. M.'s account of the state and condition of man, on whom, 'universally, the *moral corruption* of our first parent has been entailed,' a very unpromising field expands before the moral preacher. A Being may be *sick* or diseased, without having his constitution essentially destroyed; or he may be *lost*, like a sheep, and yet be capable of being restored to the right track: but when a Being is corrupt *by nature*, or is one complete mass of corruption, his recovery is hopeless, and it would be absurd to expect from him the conduct or capacity of a man in health. Yet Mrs. More contends that we cannot begin a religious life except with 'the persuasion that man is *by nature* in a state of alienation from God:' but if he be *by nature* in this state, it follows that God made man in a state of alienation to himself; which is a singular reason for loving God, a strange inducement to strive after high attainments in virtue! This is the same as saying that we must not think of being good, unless we set out with believing that it is utterly impossible that we should be good. It is the same as saying that the soil is incorrigibly barren, and nothing will grow on it, and that therefore we must endeavour to raise on it all the choicest plants.—We wish that so amiable and highly cultivated a mind as that of Mrs. More could be cured of so palpable and glaring an absurdity.

It will be said perhaps, that, though human nature is in so debased and fallen a state as to be incapable by itself of thinking or doing any good thing, yet by the help of Divine Grace the insufficiency is removed: but if an absolute incapacity or

addressed. What can be more clear
thing, he has nothing to do ?—We
both the sentiment and the languag
of Mrs. More, on this occasion : "
man ! How noble in REASON ! hov
form and moving, how express and
like a god ! the beauty of the world
Yet seemingly Mrs. More woul
Prince, but "man delights not n
whether she would forgive *us* if *we*
and exclaim, "nor woman neither."

Instead of considering man as *by*
devil, surely it would be better adap
religious admonisher to display his v
prize him, at the same time, of the
ments which await him ; and, as reli
vice," to engage his reason on the si
man ? Draw him fairly. Take h
He is a being compounded of matte
petites and passions, as well as reaso
is capable of attainments in knowleg
him approximate to the angelic sta
and propensities which place him or
Though, however, he has the appeti
animals have not his reason, nor
acknowleging, and adoring his Make
predominate, and how noble, how g
be stifled by passion, and how desp
he ! What, then, is the rational c

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she would not only have avoided controversy, but would have been kept from some high-flying and visionary morality, which belongs not to human beings in their present circumstances.

After these general remarks, we must take some notice of the work before us in detail. To the leading propositions maintained in the first two chapters, viz. that 'Christianity is an internal and a practical principle,' every person who is acquainted with the preaching of our Blessed Saviour must assent. Mrs. M. very jusly asserts that 'all the doctrines of the gospel are practical principles;' that 'the finest theory never carried any man to heaven;' and that 'doing good is the vocation of the Christian:' but we do not allow that this 'doing good' can 'only be grafted on the apostacy of man;' (Vol. 1. p. 8.) nor that we ought, in this view of the subject, to consider Christianity any otherwise than as a rule of life. Divines are very apt to distinguish between a state of innocence and a state of guilt, but this makes no difference as to the didactic part of the law. Its commands are one thing, its merciful clauses are another. Mrs. More is partly right, and partly wrong, when she maintains that 'man cannot be saved by a rule which he has violated;'—by the rule, clearly not: but by clauses appended to the rule he certainly may. When it is added to the denunciation against sin, *if the wicked will forsake his way*, &c. God will *abundantly pardon*, a provision is made for the pardon of the rebel.

In the chapter on 'Mistakes in Religion,' the author suggests several pertinent remarks on the self-deception which is practised in this respect. Three different sorts of religious professors are here noticed, and to each are suitable admonitions addressed:

> 'It is not (Mrs. More here observes) casting a set of opinions into a mould, and a set of duties into a system, which constitutes the Christian religion. The circumference must have a centre, the body must have a soul, the performances must have a principle. Outward observances were wisely constituted to rouse our forgetfulness, to awaken our secular spirits, to call back our negligent hearts; but it was never intended that we should stop short in the use of them. They were designed to excite holy thoughts, to quicken us to holy deeds, but not to be used as equivalents for either. But we find it cheaper to serve God in a multitude of exterior acts, than to starve one interior corruption.'

The section on 'Periodical Religion' is a continuation of the subject of the former chapter. Here the mistake of substituting an occasional piety of mere forms for a prevailing principle of piety is well exposed; yet we do not perceive with what propriety a writer who ridicules periodical devotions can assert the importance of periodical festivals.

From the chapter on 'Prayer,' we could extract several excellent passages: but one must suffice as a specimen:

> 'Prayer is the application of want to him who only can relieve it; the voice of sin to him who alone can pardon it. It is the urgency of poverty, the prostration of humility, the fervency of penitence, the confidence of trust. It is not eloquence, but earnestness, not the definition of helplessness, but the feeling of it; not figures of speech, but compunction of soul. It is the "Lord save us, we perish" of drowning Peter; the cry of faith to the ear of mercy.
>
> 'Adoration is the noblest employment of created beings; confession the natural language of guilty creatures; gratitude the spontaneous expression of pardoned sinners.
>
> 'Prayer is desire. It is not a conception of the mind, nor a mere effort of the intellect, nor an act of the memory; but an elevation of the soul towards its Maker; a pressing sense of our own ignorance and infirmity, a consciousness of the perfections of God, of his readiness to hear, of his power to help, of his willingness to save.
>
> 'It is not an emotion produced in the senses, nor an effect wrought by the imagination; but a determination of the will, an effusion of the heart.
>
> 'Prayer is the guide to self knowledge by prompting us to look after our sins in order to pray against them; a motive to vigilance, by teaching us to guard against those sins which, through self examination, we have been enabled to detect.
>
> 'Prayer is an act both of the understanding and of the heart. The understanding must apply itself to the knowledge of the divine perfections, or the heart will not be led to the adoration of them. It would not be a *reasonable* service, if the mind was excluded. It must be rational worship, or the human worshipper would not bring to the service the distinguishing faculty of his nature, which is reason. It must be spiritual worship, or it would want the distinctive quality to make it acceptable to Him who has declared that He will be worshipped "in spirit and in truth."
>
> 'Prayer is right in itself as the most powerful means of resisting sin and advancing in holiness. It is above all right, as every thing is, which has the authority of Scripture, the command of God, and the example of Christ.'

The 'Cultivation of a devotional Spirit' forms a suitable appendix to the essay on Prayer; and a devotional habit is strongly inculcated as the best means of making the future predominate over the present.

'The love of God' is powerfully urged as the source of every right action and feeling: but surely we cannot love God *with all our hearts, souls, minds, and strength,* if we believe him to be capable of appointing fallible creatures to everlasting punishments, or of even watching for the sinner to take an unfair advantage of his weakness, as Mrs. M. presents the case in Vol. II. p. 249.

> 'God, so far from approving a wicked man, because he suffers him to go on triumphantly, seems rather, by allowing him to continue his smooth and prosperous course, to have some awful destiny in store for him, which will not perhaps be revealed till his repentance is too late; then his knowlege of God's displeasure, and the dreadful consequences of that displeasure, may be revealed together, may be revealed when there is no room for mercy.'

What an account of the most amiable of Beings! It is, we presume, kindly intended to alarm the sinner, but under a true religion this should only be attempted by true statements. Perhaps it was with the same aim that Mrs. More asserted (Vol. I. p. 165.) that '*all* the perfections of God stand in the way of creatures so guilty:' but surely the attribute of *mercy* ought to have been excepted; and this exception was peculiarly necessary, because, in the subsequent chapter, the boundlessness of the Divine Mercy is somewhat singularly exemplified:

> 'We are disposed to urge the smallness of our offences, as a plea for their forgiveness; whereas God, to exhibit the boundlessness of his own mercy, has taught us to allege a plea directly contrary, "Lord pardon my iniquity, for it is *great.*" To natural reason, this argument of David is most extraordinary.'

To *natural reason*, and to every species of reason, this argument must indeed appear extraordinary: but Mrs. M. has here fallen into a very palpable mistake, and then reasons on it in despite of common sense. In Psalm xxv. 11. the Hebrew particle כי does not signify *quoniam*, but *quamvis* [*]. David does not assign the enormity of his offence as a reason why it ought more readily to be forgiven; for then the greater the crime the surer must be the pardon; and Whitfield might on this ground well exclaim, "Whores and rogues! come to Christ, the dirtier the better!"—but the Psalmist prays to the Almighty for pardon, *although* or *notwithstanding* his offence was very great [†]. Before we quit Mrs. More's remark, we must

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[*] See *Bythneri Lyra Prophetica*, No. 14.

[†] We ought not to have been surprised, after Mrs. More had quoted Ps. xxv. 11. to prove that *great* sins are more easily pardoned than little sins, if she had referred to the common translation of Romans vi. 17. to shew that the Apostle esteemed it a matter of *thankfulness to God* that the persons to whom he wrote *had been the servants of sin.* If, however, the sense of David and of the Apostle be correctly given, we shall find that the former supplicates mercy notwithstanding the greatness of his offence, and that the latter thanks God,

‘ I have observed, and I think I
a common beggar had rather scree
churchyard, if overtaken by a show
doors stand invitingly open, than tak
service is performing. It is a less an
with the storm, than to enjoy the co
if he must enjoy them at the heavy p

‘ While we condemn the beggar,
happy if we cannot there detect some
disposedness, and distaste to serious t
find, that we prefer not only our pl
had almost said, our very pains, and v
communing with our Maker!’

We hope that, generally speakin
this lady would make us. As for
a little charity, she might have f
preferring the shelter of the wall
church, besides a reluctance to list
make him averse to mix with well-
may render it necessary to conceal
comes for his appearing at the chu

On the last three chapters in Vo
in its requisitions,’ ‘ Christian Hol
ratively small faults and virtues,’ w
except that they contain many sear
invite us to the highest degrees of

‘ The holiness of God indeed is co
is bounded, finite, imperfect. Yet let
little sphere. Let our desires be lar
contracted. Let our aims be lofty, th

Let us be solicitous that no day pass without some augmentation of our holiness, some added height in our aspirations, some wider expansion in the compass of our virtues. Let us strive every day for some superiority to the preceding day, something that shall distinctly mark the passing scene with progress; something that shall inspire an humble hope that we are rather less-unfit for heaven to-day than we were yesterday. The celebrated artist who has recorded that he passed no day without drawing a line, drew it not for repetition but for progress; not to produce a given number of strokes, but to forward his work, to compleat his design. The Christian, like the painter, does not draw his lines at random, he has a model to imitate, as well as an outline to fill. Every touch conforms him more and more to the great original. He who has transfused most of the life of God into his soul, has copied it most successfully.’

Passing over the first chapter of the second volume, on ‘Self-Examination,’ we hasten to a passage in that which follows it, on ‘Self-Love,’ which requires animadversion. Mrs. M. tells us that ‘Self-love is the centre of the unrenewed heart;’ and she might have added, of the renewed also; for is it possible to prevent self-love from being the first law of our nature? Are we not invited to love God, *because* he first loved us? Are not the beatitudes addressed to our self-love? Do not all the promises and threatenings of the Gospel proceed, and is not even benevolence itself recommended, on this principle? If Mrs. M. means to insinuate that the renewed heart is without self-love, she indirectly maintains the impossibility of obtaining a renewed heart. She wishes to alter Pope’s beautiful lines on self-love, but she spoils both the poetry and the accuracy of the sentiment.

Mrs. More is not only very dictatorial to all the members of her own school, but endeavours to throw discredit on every mode of teaching Christianity except that which her example sanctions. In the xivth chapter, ‘On the conduct of Christians in their intercourse with the Irreligious,’ she censures those writers who dwell on the Evidences of Christianity; and though she professes not to disapprove scientific inquiry in religion, she is not willing to give it much scope. Yet in the subsequent essay, ‘On the impropriety of introducing Religion in general conversation,’ she pleads for making it a subject of discussion; though she needs not to be informed that controversial divinity is not a fit topic for general converse; that ‘polemic tattle’ can do little good; and that very few persons are sufficiently *at home* on religious subjects to make them interesting and edifying topics of common conversation. — The opening remarks in the xivth chapter deserve commendation and transcription:

'The combination of integrity with discretion is the precise point at which a serious Christian must aim in his intercourse, and especially, in his debates on religion, with men of the opposite description. He must consider himself as not only having his own reputation but the honour of religion in his keeping. While he must on the one hand "set his face as a flint" against any thing that may be construed into compromise or evasion, into denying or concealing any Christian truth, or shrinking from any commanded duty, in order to conciliate favour; he must on the other hand, be scrupulously careful never to maintain a Christian doctrine with an unchristian temper. In endeavouring to convince, he must be cautious not needlessly to irritate. He must distinguish between the honour of God and the pride of his own character, and never be pertinaciously supporting the one, under the pretence that he is only maintaining the other. The dislike thus excited against the disputant is at once transferred to the principle, and the adversary's unfavourable opinion of religion is augmented by the faults of its champion. At the same time, the intemperate champion puts it out of his power to be of any future service to the man whom his offensive manners have disgusted.

'A serious Christian, it is true, feels an honest indignation at hearing those truths on which his everlasting hopes depend, lightly treated. He cannot but feel his heart rise at the affront offered to his Maker. But instead of calling down fire from heaven on the reviler's head, he will raise a secret supplication to the God of heaven in his favour, which, if it change not the heart of his opponent, will not only tranquillize his own, but soften it towards his adversary; for we cannot easily hate the man for whom we pray.

'He who advocates the sacred cause of Christianity should be particularly aware (cautious) of fancying that his being religious will atone for his being disagreeable; that his orthodoxy will justify his uncharitableness, or his zeal make up for his indiscretion. He must not persuade himself that he has been serving God, when he has only been gratifying his own resentment; when he has actually by a fiery defence prejudiced the cause which he might perhaps have advanced by temperate argument, and persuasive mildness. Even a judicious silence under great provocation is, in a warm temper, real forbearance. And though "to keep silence from good words" may be pain and grief, yet the pain and grief must be borne, and the silence must be observed.

'We sometimes see imprudent religionists glory in the attacks which their own indiscretion has invited; with more vanity than truth they apply the strong and ill chosen term of persecution, to the sneers and ridicule which some impropriety of manner or some inadvertency of their own has occasioned. Now and then it is to be feared the censure may be deserved, and the high professor may possibly be but an indifferent moralist. Even a good man, a point we are not sufficiently ready to concede, may have been blameable in some instance, on which his censurers will naturally have kept a keen eye. On these occasions how forcibly does the pointed caution recur, which was implied by the divine moralist on the mount, and enforced by the Apostle Peter to distinguish for whose sake we are calumniated.

'*By the way*, this *sharp look out* of worldly men on the professors of religion, is not without very important uses. While it serves to promote circumspection in the real Christian; the detection to which it leads in the case of the hollow professor, forms a broad and useful line of distinction between two classes of characters so essentially distinct, and yet so frequently, so unjustly, and so malevolently confounded.'

Considering the nature and condition of man, the hints on 'Christian Watchfulness' are worthy of notice; and the distinctions between 'true and false zeal' are very necessary:—but when, in the chapter on 'Insensibility to Eternal Things,' this practical writer attempts to alarm the honest man of business by telling him that, 'in one respect, the danger is greater to him who is best employed,' what kind of answer must she expect from the virtuous tradesman? Looking on our virtues only as minor sins, this lady may regard the man of business, who cannot devote the time which she gives to pious exercises and sublime meditation, as in a dangerous state: but, without unintelligible refinements, the safest maxim is that the honest and upright discharge of the duties of our present station is the best preparative for heaven. Visionaries and enthusiasts talk of certain frames, meditations, and anticipations, as symptoms of suitable preparation for eternity: but, since all that is required of us is *to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with our God*, we need not be terrified by those who charge us with insensibility to eternal things unless we adopt all their flights, fancies, and austerities.

A chapter on 'Happy Deaths' affords Mrs. M. an opportunity of descanting on the exits of some avowed infidels; another, on 'the Sufferings of Good Men,' represents the advantages of religion in seasons of affliction; and the concluding chapter exhibits their 'temper and conduct in sickness and death.' The uses of affliction are well displayed:

'Let us confess, that in all the trying circumstances of this changeful scene, there is something infinitely soothing to the feelings of a Christian, something inexpressibly tranquillizing to his mind, to know that he has nothing to do with events but to submit to them; that he has nothing to do with the revolutions of life but to acquiesce in them, as the dispensations of eternal wisdom; that he has not to take the management out of the hands of Providence, but submissively to follow the divine leading; that he has not to contrive for to-morrow, but to acquiesce to-day; not to condition about events yet to come, but to meet those which are present with cheerful resignation. Let him be thankful that as he could not by foreseeing prevent them, so he was not permitted to foresee them; thankful for

ignorance

'We are too ready to imagine tha
God but by active exertions, exertio
they indulge our natural taste, and g
it is an error to imagine that God, b
situation, puts it out of our power t
us under any circumstances which ma
either for ourselves or others. Joseph
disqualifications, loss of liberty, and
both for his own high advancement
Daniel in his dungeon, not only the
jaws of furious beasts, converted the
him to the knowlege of the true
effected the former? Would not
latter?'

We have now extended this art
readers to judge of the merit of the
what the Methodists would term '
some of her expressions are in the
'It is always time enough to ent
she is inelegant, as when she talks
of '*clearing away the score*;' of '*cl*
thing in the world,' &c.: but, on t
very creditable to the writer as com
her knowlege of the heart; and if
many of her maxims, it would cert
it is. Perhaps, however, as the se
are not here given in the form of
be so popular as *Cœlebs*: but *we*
mode which she has adopted; and,
with all her doctrine, we hope th
are reducible to practice will not

y to pay sufficient attention to the present work has occasioned our seeming neglect of it; and indeed the which an adequate review of so interesting a composi- emanded, necessarily occasioned some temporary post- ent of its claims, in favour of competitors which were , but more easily dismissed.

Shee's original design, and present curtailment of that re thus explained by himself:

> one poem, of four parts, he had intended to treat at large, of progress, present state, and principles of painting. The t was to have unfolded its origin, progress, and perfection the ancients. The second, its revival and advancement the Italians, Flemish, and French. The third, its rise, , and present state in Britain; and the fourth was to have voted to a didactic essay on its principles and powers.
>
> on this plan, however, the author had not proceeded far, he discovered, that his ambition surpassed his ability; and had neither learning nor leisure sufficient for the task which proposed. The subject so branched around him in all direc- uch "a swarm of topics settled on his pen," that he shrunk undertaking, contracted his views, and contented himself empting to erect a small didactic lodge on the site of the poe- ace which he had projected.
>
> volume therefore, which he now presents to the public, at which preceded it, completes the project of his humbler although the two include but a small portion of his original

having observed that 'whatever appears in his present a satirical character is incidental to it; that his plan is regretted; while the Venus de Medici, and the Apollo Belvidere, are poetically painted, in colours worthy of the originals. The Hercules, the Torso, and the Laocoon, are not omitted; nor the Elgin marbles; and the Canto concludes with a supplication to Time and Chance to destroy no farther the inestimable relics of the perfection of art, and with a highly animated address to the spirit of Antient Greece.

In the IIId Canto, the student is introduced as reviewing his progress through the course of preparatory study. He is here wisely reminded that, however high his ambition may begin to soar, prodigies of early excellence are unknown in painting. The danger of dissipating the powers of his mind in too wide a variety of pursuits, unconnected with his principal object, is next represented to him in the well-drawn character of Hilario. He is then exhorted to aim at the noblest departments of his art; and in a strain of lofty sentiment he is encouraged to proceed as an historical painter, amid all the difficulties and discouragements which are attendant on that branch of the profession. A feeling allusion to the loss of every antient painting naturally introduces the supposition, that these productions were equal to those which we possess as specimens of the *Sculpture* of antiquity. The empire of Taste is happily imagined to have been established in modern Italy as a compensation for the destruction of the Roman power; and the characters of Raphael and Michael Angelo, as the ornaments of the Roman school,—Rubens, of the Flemish,—Titian, of the Venetian,—and the Carracci, of the Bolognese,—are excellently depictured. Correggio, Rembrandt, Poussin, and Paul Veronese, meet with that honour which they severally deserve, apportioned with equal zeal and discrimination. The silly affectation of decrying the productions of the Dutch school is strongly ridiculed; and, in still more forcible terms of sarcasm, the vain pretender to taste is reprobated, for denying to the student in painting all access to his hoarded and useless treasures.

Canto the IVth begins by advising the young artist to visit the schools of Italy; while it warns him not only against the enervating pleasures of that luxurious country, but against that fluctuation of taste which results from the different objects pursued in different schools. This fickleness of judgment is properly exemplified in the character of Vibratio; a name, on the classical propriety of which we cannot compliment Mr. Shee. The painter is again reminded of that comprehensive scale of study which he must adopt, in order to ensure any thing approaching to excellence in his art. He must be able to represent all the varieties of action, passion, and character in man; for which purpose, the stores of History and of Poetry must become his own. Homer, Virgil, and Shakspeare, are designated with the greatest truth as the treasury of subjects for painting. Several of the old masters, most celebrated for their general knowlege, are mentioned, viz. Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, Michael Angelo, and Rubens. The advantages of a highly cultivated mind in an artist are clearly demonstrated in the character of Sir Joshua Reynolds; who is recorded, honoured, and lamented, in strains which would have added something even to his living reputation.

The Vth Canto is chiefly occupied with precepts, happily relieved, however, by characters which illustrate the author's advice. Reference is made to the discourses of Reynolds, and to the lectures of Fuseli and Opie; and we must here take the opportunity of remarking, that we have seldom seen a more liberal and manly feeling in any professor of any art, towards his contemporaries and fellow-labourers, than that which prompts and animates every expression of Mr. Shee. By no means sparing of his praise, he is free and distinct in stating his objections wherever they arise; and whether he is delineating the peculiar powers of a Barry or those of an Opie, with that warmth which can best be indulged over departed merit, or defending his own opinion of the superiority of Raphael to Michael Angelo against the ingenious eloquence of a Fuseli, he equally displays an independence and originality of thought, and a clear precision of language, which nothing but dullness or malevolence can misinterpret into arrogance. In this canto, the painter is cautioned against various defects, which seem to justify the would-be critic in his contempt of modern art; among others, Manner, and the mechanism of the pencil, arising from an over-value of manual dexterity. The folly of disregarding the merits of imitation is illustrated in the character of Aristo: the trifling fondness for knowing the petty peculiarities of great artists, in the collector of anecdotes, Curioso; the affectation of travelled painters, in Balbuto; the 'process hunter of the palette,' who becomes a chemist rather than a painter, in Parthennius; the error of those who ascribe too much merit to facility of execution, in Presto; and the defects resulting from the opposite extreme of practice, in the minutiæ-mongers who delight only in the laboured littleness of Denner and of Dow.

In the last Canto, so large a variety of subjects are introduced, and those of so general a nature, that an analysis of its contents can scarcely be given without making too large an addition to this abstract, which is already longer than we intended. The principal points are the dignity of the art, and the disgrace of applying it to mean and unworthy purposes; with the glorious subjects for painting which are afforded by the triumphs and virtues of our countrymen.—The poem concludes by an appeal to the public spirit, 'to revive the moral majesty of the arts,' by such patronage as no individuals, and no collective bodies but the government, can supply; and by reminding us that the agency of those arts is essential in creating and preserving the best renown of nations.

We shall begin our selections of successful passages from the text of the first canto, where the author thus concludes the invocation to Taste, to which we before alluded:

'In life's gay dawn, when every hope beat high,
And beams of glory danced before the eye,
The Muse to thee her earliest vows address'd,
And cast low cares for ever from her breast;
Thy aid in double invocation claim'd,
As now the pencil—now the lyre inflamed.
A guiding beam, ethereal Spirit! lend,
At once the Painter and the Bard befriend:
Of thee unfavour'd, what presumptuous hand
Shall wake the strain, or dare the scene expand?
Before thy glance life's aukward forms retreat,
Thy smile is triumph, and thy frown defeat!'

We also mentioned Mr. Shee's eulogy on that standard of grace and beauty which was conceived and established by the Grecian artists. He thus expresses his advice on the subject:

'To form your Taste, and educate your eye,
In Beauty's School, to polish'd Greece apply.
Like Moses, erst on Sinai's summit placed,
Her favour'd hand received the laws of Taste,
With holy zeal fulfill'd the trust assign'd,
And broke the barbarous idols of mankind.
She first the powers of just proportion found,
And scatter'd parts in beauteous union bound;
Assembled kindred sweets from every clime,
And form'd a standard for admiring Time.
As mountain summits still the ray retain,
When light declining quits the darken'd plain,
So, in her Arts, those altitudes of mind,
That tower above the level of mankind,
Benighted Greece still shews the beam sublime,
The Sun of Glory shed upon her prime.
Successive ages consecrate her skill,
Attest her Taste, and hold it sacred still:
Though lost her sceptre, yet her learning sways,
Her Arts still dictate, and the world obeys.
O! triumph truly great! to rule the mind,
And hold Wit's mild dominion o'er mankind!'

Terminating here our extracts of beauties from the first canto, we shall now introduce some strictures on the faults of Mr. Shee's poetical style; and shall not interrupt our farther selections from his verses by any verbal criticism.

One of the sins which most easily beset the author's rhymes is the sin of alliteration. We could fill our pages with instances of this offence: but let the following suffice:

> ‘ Clustering Cupids float on flimsy wings,’—

not to mention any objections to the phraseology of this line.

> ‘ Pursue her Protean skill from part to part,’—

not to mention the false quantity of Protĕan, as the word must be read to make the line into a verse.

> ‘ Heaven's just sentence shakes the shuddering world,’—
> ‘ Mutilation mar thy matchless toil.’—
> ‘ A frothy fop, in shreds of science drest,
> A superficial smatterer at best.’

We are convinced that Mr. Shee betrays this fault often unconsciously; since he deals in that species of alliteration which we believe is the result only of long practice and much facility in committing the offence. We mean that sort of double echo of initials which is observable in these lines:

> ‘ And shun the mob that shout at Mammon's heels.’
> ‘ The Hero's fame from History's feebler hand.’—

We pass over such examples of this practice as ‘ diligently dissipates,’ ‘ trade of Taste,’ ‘ technic trammels,’ ‘ portrait panegyrists,’ &c. &c. and proceed to another defect in Mr. Shee's expression, which is very offensive, and perhaps (if possible) too offensive to fastidious ears. We would say that a classical scholar is so disgusted by a violation of the rules of quantity, that his judgment sometimes receives an undue prejudice against the real excellences of a writer who is guilty of that violation. Thus, for instance, we know many readers, (but we trust that *we* are above such an undue bias,) who could ill relish any discussion even of antient *Art* from the pen of a poet who unfortunately wrote

> ‘ And Agisander's lost in Laocoon,’

and again,

> ‘ That could to Laocoon the wreath refuse;’

pronouncing the word in both cases Laocoōn.

How would Mr. Shee scan this line?

> “ *Laocoon, ductus Neptuno sorte sacerdos.*”

Almost as revolting to a delicate taste would be the contracted pronunciation of the proper name in the following verse:

'In anecdotes of Art Curioso deals,'

who must be called *Curoso* for the sake of the rhythm.

'O'er drolls indecŏrous, and vulgar broils,'

is much worse; and such an usage as indecŏrous may truly be called vulgar. — '*A* universal Genius,' we conclude to be a false print; as well as the word Dan'æ for Danäe: but we meet with some familiarities, (to use the gentlest word,) which must have been intended, and cannot be excused. For instance:

'And heroes *'neath* triumphal arches ride,'—
'For *'mongst* her wonders were a choice confess'd.'—

'*Disaster'd*' is to us an unknown participle, from an unknown verb; and 'the passions' Protĕan empire' offends us again.

'And Colouring her rich tissued robe *extends*,'

through a line of eleven legitimate feet.

'To Heav'n *devote*' is a phrase new to us; and, as the climax of the first fault which we mentioned,

'In luscious languor every limb reclines'—
'The touch of Taste displays the tint of truth'—
'The pow'rs of painting in his praise combine'—
'And Fancy wafts him on her wildest wings'—
'And Veronesé with Vecelli vies.'

All this is much too Darwinian for critical toleration. 'To Virtû's shrine unquestioned may repair,' cannot be pronounced rhythmically, without substituting a much nobler divinity for the tenant of the shrine in question; though the author is certainly not prepared to call Italy the shrine of *Virtue*.

'Now oil's in favour, varnish *now's* the rage,'—
'*Who 're* always in a flutter or a flame,'—
'But soon our speed is check'd, we pant, *we blow*,'—
'What Friendship *can't* descry, or *won't* disclose'—
'Tho' blockheads *brew* around the critic's storm'—
'Majestic peopling *every public place*'—
'Then, *sure*, no more with Europe's cares oppress'd'
'Times, which our *primers* teach us to revere,'
'The vigorous *prime* of man's terrestrial year,'
'For earth a triumph, and a *treat* for heaven!'

This numerous list of errors and inaccuracies might yet be increased: but we turn with pleasure to the general light and beauty of the sun, from the spots which a microscopic view may discover in his orb. We should not have have deemed it worth our time and trouble to exhibit so detailed a representaner of the faults and mistakes of an inferior writer: and perhaps in the present case we should remember that Mr. Shee's professional occupations may have really prevented him from bestowing that attention on the revisal of his [illegible] studies, (if a poetical system of instruction in painting can be so denominated,) which would have secured a greater degree of correctness. He cannot claim this plea, however, beyond the admission of some occasional negligences: and as the defects which we have noticed amount to more than can be forgiven on such a ground, we are compelled reluctantly to infer that too large a portion of these imperfections take their rise from some laxity in poetic taste. That Mr. Shee is a *Mannerist* in his versification, we think, has sufficiently appeared: that he is lamentably careless as to his use of proper names is equally manifest; and also that he has debased a very elegant poem by several unpardonable vulgarisms. On the first of these heads, we could quote against him his own excellent condemnation of *Manner*, when obvious and obtrusive, in every art; on the second, his unclassical peccadilloes, we could again cite his own temperate and judicious praise of the study of the learned languages; and on the third, 'his colloquial familiarities,' we are sure that we need say nothing to convince him of his error.—Let us now engage in the more welcome occupation of selecting amusement for our readers, and at the same time of contributing to the well-merited reputation of Mr. Shee.

The description of the Venus, in the second Canto, appears to us very happily executed:

'With modest mien the sov'reign beauty stands,
And seeks to shun the homage she commands,
Averts her face with such a timid air,
The marble seems to burn in blushes there;
While grace and ease in every limb unfold,
The Paphian fair that fired the world of old.

'Each charm divine that Nature's stores supply,
To fire the Poet's thought or Painter's eye;
Whate'er of Love's elysium fancy views,
Or Heaven unfolds in vision to the Muse,
The curious Artist caught, with care combined,
Fix'd as he found, and as he wrought refined,
Till rapt, the wave's proud offspring he outvies,
And bids a rival from the rock arise.
When Nature, watchful of the process, view'd
A form so lovely, from a mass so rude;
When, in the won'drous work, she saw her own,
By art outdone, and e'en excell'd in stone,
Amazed, she paused—confess'd the conquering fair,
Set her bright seal, and stamp'd perfection there.

Yet, while we view those beauties which might move
Immortal breasts, and warm a world to love,
No coarse emotions rise, no vulgar fires
Profane the sacred passion she inspires;
Each sense refined to rapture as we gaze,
Like heav'n's pure angels finds its bliss in praise.'

We could wish to extract the address to the Spirit of Antient Greece, from the same canto, but we must press forwards to other ornaments of the work. In a preceding page, we alluded to the author's preference of Raphael to Michael Angelo, and should be well pleased to quote from his notes a free and most able defence of his opinion: but to shew that he justly appreciates the really wonderful character of Buonaroti, we shall transcribe his account of that prodigy of art from the text of the third Canto:

'Majestic Genius! from whose daring hand
Spring's all that's great in thought, or action grand,
What'er can awe the soul on sacred plan,
Or strike stupendous in the powers of man:
In forms emaciate cramp'd, before his day,
The meagre muscle scarce appear'd to play,
The story's strength, the enervate action marr'd,
Man seem'd a sapless statue, stiff and hard,
But torpid while the plastic lumber lay,
Prometheus like, he fired the lifeless clay,
Bade every limb enlarge—each breast expand,
And pour'd a race of giants from his hand.
Behold him, still as Genius prompts, impart
A bolder grace to each subservient Art,
While now the powers of Phidias he displays,
Now leaves Palladio but the second praise,
Whether he rears the Prophet's form on high,
Or hangs the dome enormous in the sky.
On Painting's *proudest pinion* soars sublime,
Scales heav'n itself, and scorns the bounds of time;
Thro' all his toils, triumphant vigour swells,
And grandeur in impressive glory dwells.
His fiery soul beyond this sphere of things,
To man's more awful scene hereafter springs;
With fearless hand unfolds the final state,
That closes the catastrophe of Fate;
Displays the pangs of guilt to vengeance hurl'd,
While heav'n's just sentence shakes the shudd'ring world.'

It is with peculiar satisfaction that we quote the noblest tribute which, as far as we know, was ever paid to the departed genius of the first of English painters; (see the fourth Canto.)

'Pride of his time! in painting's low decay,
His genius rising still prolong'd the day;
Beam'd o'er the darken'd scene of Art, and shed
A needful glory round Britannia's head:
For long enshrouded in the night of Taste,
Remote and rude, a mere commercial waste,
She lay obscure, in Europe's scornful eye,
Convicted of a cold and cloudy sky;
Till Reynolds poured his lustre, and display'd
Her cliffs refulgent rising from the shade.'

After a judicious, and we believe a most exactly faithful delineation of the peculiar merits of this great painter, we are furnished with a pleasing and equally correct sketch of his general character:

'With candour fraught, yet free without offence,
The mildest manners, and the strongest sense;
The best example, and the brightest rule,
His life a lesson, and his art a school,
Behold him run his radiant course, and claim
Thro' half an age an undisputed fame!
Still to the last, maintain his proudest height,
Nor drop one feather in so bold a flight.
But fate at length, with darker aspect frown'd,
And sent a shaft that brought him to the ground;
Struck at the joy congenial to his heart,
And shut him out the paradise of art*:
Obscured at length the sky so long serene,
And cast in shades of night his closing scene.

'In Leo thus, when Sol refulgent reigns,
And Summer fervours scorch the panting plains;
Nor mists appear, nor exhalations rise,
To dull the dazzling radiance of the skies,
Till downward verging in his course divine,
A milder lustre marks the day's decline,
Ascending slow, an earthy vapour shrouds
His parting splendours, and he sets in clouds.'

Although the fifth Canto abounds in didactic passages of much merit, and is perhaps even fuller of useful precept for the young painter, (particularly in admonishing him against almost every species of extreme in his art,) than any other part of the work, yet for the general reader it does not afford many examples of brilliant poetry, or amusing illustration.—The ensuing

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'* Alluding to the loss of sight which Sir Joshua Reynolds experienced a short time before his death, and which was supposed to have hastened that event, by excluding him from the gratification which he always appeared to derive from the practice of his profession.'

ing couplets seem to us to display as much good taste in opinion as in language:

'In hues alike remote from glare or gloom,
A soften'd splendour, and a mellow'd bloom,
The blushing Muse judicious taste arrays,
Nor lets the rainbow on her bosom blaze.'

* * * * * * *

'Touch and retouch your works, review, compare,
Compose with freedom, but correct with care,
While taste can find a fault, or toil remove,
With patient hand still polish and improve;
Perfection's visions floating in your view,
With undiverted vigour still pursue;
Fame in your head, and ardour in your heart,
Before you—Nature; and around you—Art.'

In the sixth Canto, we find many passages dictated by the same sober judgment;—none, perhaps, more sensible than these:

'But oft deceived the tasteless age we blame,
And doubt the judgment that denies us fame;
When, haply some less partial eye than our's
May see that prejudice o'errates our pow'rs
The soundest judge of human merit known
Is he, who justly estimates his own;
Who, drawing vanity's deep veil aside,
Surmounting passion, and dispelling pride,
Thro' self-love's magnifying mist defin'd
Can take the true dimensions of his mind.
But hard the task! mistaken friends conspire,
In blindfold league, to baffle our desire;
Thro' their false medium seen, what merits rise!
Our pigmy powers appear of giant size;
Till giddy in their flattering glass we gaze,
And self-enamoured deck our brows with bays.
There's not a blockhead on the brink of shame,
But has his little atmosphere of fame,' &c. &c.

The most animated as well as the most attractive passage in the sixth Canto is that in which the poet recommends English subjects to the historical painter:

'Or should high feats of late achievement fire,
And patriot zeal the pencil's toils inspire;
Pass o'er the proud exploits of Greece and Rome,
And call your country's heroes from the tomb.
Behold! in gorgeous triumph crowding by,
Britannia's glories press on Fancy's eye,
From heaven's high seats, indignant sages glow,
To see what trophies thankless states bestow;

From every Muse their unpaid honours claim,
Upbraid our coldness, and demand their fame.'—

'For living virtue let the statue rise,
The arch extend—the column pierce the skies—
The canvas in commemorative glow,
Each proud exploit of patriot ardour shew;
Recall her triumphs to Britannia's view,
And in her Arts her antient fame renew.'

To this inspiriting subject the author frequently recurs, and always with great effect, both in his notes and his text. From the latter, we shall make only one more extract, and then give some general character of the former, with a specimen of their style, to close our critique.— After having dwelt with prophetic rapture on the prospect of the restored splendour of the Arts, when peace shall give our government a breathing-time to look on their degraded state*, Mr. Shee inculcates on his brethren a sense of the moral dignity of their profession; reprobates, with all the energetic warmth of genius and of virtue, the prostitution of the pencil to unmanly purposes; and thus addresses his twin-inspirers in congenial strains:

'Genius and Virtue were by heaven design'd
For mutual love, in holy league combined:
Their powers in moral splendour to unite,
And glow together still like heat and light.
O beauteous union! spectacle sublime!
Unrivalled in the theatre of time!
By mortal powers to gazing angels given,
For earth a triumph, and a treat for heav'n.
In thy (*your*) conjunction, brilliant stars of mind,
What beams of glory burst upon mankind!
Beyond the pomp of planets, or the show
Of Nature's wonders in the world below!'—

* * * * *

'To rule the breast, from vulgar bliss refin'd,'
To touch with purer joy the polish'd mind;'—

* * * * *

'Be these your aims, ye sons of Art! be these
Your hopes to prosper, and your means to please:
With generous ardour let your genius glow
To leave some trophy of your fame below;

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* We are aware that the author's indignation on this subject will by many readers be reckoned unseasonable, and his complaints querulous:—but *does* the government shew any adequate attention to the Arts? Such noble designs as that of the British Institution (to which Mr. Shee ascribes its deserved honour) ought to excite our statesmen to give that *national* stimulus to genius which can alone call forth its highest exertions.

> In patriot toils your country's raptures raise,
> Promote her glory, and extort her praise;
> Deserve her love; and if she slight your claim,
> Be your's the consolation—her's the shame!'

We now come to Mr. Shee's notes, which would require a much larger space than we can afford them, in order to do anything like justice to their contents. They furnish indeed all that the title-page promises, and much more, and are far more ample than the text.—"To take the lyre from the peg" was an expression not uncommon among the antients in the commencement of their poems. The moderns have as frequently made the lyre itself a peg, on which they might hang a long series of *notes*—in prose. A well known satirical publication carried this practice to the farthest extent, perhaps, which it has ever reached: but many other writers have adopted the plan; and Mr. Shee has pursued it to no inconsiderable length. A mind of strong reasoning powers, and great quickness of combination, admirably stored with the history and the precepts of his peculiar art, as well as of many others, has indeed enabled him to afford us a large stock of various information and entertainment in every part of the present work: but the attention of the reader during a perusal of it, and we suspect that it was also the case of the writer during its composition, is so often called away from poetry to prose, that the former is not suffered to make its due impression. This is partly occasioned by the concise manner in which many of the subjects are treated in the text, but still more by the custom of printing the notes at the bottom of the page; a custom which, at least, must be allowed to diminish the effect of verse, and to consult utility to the prejudice of amusement: even supposing the former end not to be equally attainable by any other means. We think that the same object of instruction might be gained, and in a manner compatible with the full pleasure that is to be derived from poetry, by prefatory matter, and by explanatory notes at the end of each book. It is difficult (as in the present case) to resist reading that which is immediately offered to the eye, particularly when curiosity has been previously excited on the subject. Yet surely it is impossible to judge of poetry with such frequent interruptions; and a little temporary ignorance of the full force of some passages is well compensated by the juster feeling which we gain of the design and manner of the whole poem, under a different arrangement. Indeed, to give a poet his fairest chance, (if this may not be deemed too hard on his readers,) his work should be read first without comment; secondly, with the notes; and thirdly, again without them. We are well aware that few either among authors or among critics could support the ordeal: but so much the better for the interests of correct taste, and for the real advantage of disappointed candidates for literary fame; if any defeat, however merited and signal, can check the combatant in this alluring contest.

We shall state our objections, trifling in point of consequence as they may be, to Mr. Shee's notes, in the first place; and then, according to our previous plan, point out some few of their more ingenious passages. The same fault of alliteration, which disfigures his poetry, also injures the effect of his prose; together with a laboured antithesis, and an imitation of the 'measured majesty of Johnson,' as Mr. S. terms it, which cannot fail to offend a nicer judgment. We would offer this general criticism on these acute, original, and amusing lucubrations; and though we had marked many passages for specific censure, we shall let them pass unnoticed, selecting only two from the number. In the notes to the first Canto, the author says, endeavouring to assign a reason for equal honours being paid to Painting in our Universities, with those which are appropriated to Poetry[*] and Music:

> 'Should the judgment of the Antients (an authority seldom questioned by the learned) be admitted in favour of the arts of design, the dignity of erudition would not be impaired by their association. If that particular class of students, whose pride and occupation it is to explore the languages of antient times, and whom we, *par éminence*, call scholars, had been familiar to the Greeks, it may be doubted, whether, in the estimation of that polished and discriminating people, an Apelles and a Zeuxis, a Phidias and a Protogenes, would not have been formidable rivals to the Cunninghams and the Scaligers, the Grævii and Gronovii of their day.'

The above comparison is singularly unfair. To Apelles and Zeuxis, to Phidias and Protogenes[†], should be opposed Homer and Virgil, Demosthenes and Cicero: that is, the best poets and orators to the best painters and sculptors of antiquity. The Cunninghams (and Mr. Shee had better have said the Bentleys, or the Porsons, unless he was aware *that only one of each* has yet appeared,) and the Scaligers, the Grævii and the Gronovii, should be contrasted with those pioneers of taste, whoever they may be, who have analyzed the excellences of antient sculpture; for of antient painting, alas! we can neither enjoy the text nor understand the comment.—We have considered it as right to state these objections to Mr. Shee's manner of advocating his cause in the present instance, though we cordially agree with him in wishing that Professorships of Painting were instituted in all our Universities. Let no Muse be excluded from our Helicon.

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[*] In the case of Poetry, these honours are to be found only at Oxford.

[†] Was not Paxiteles intended? At all events, his name, or that of Myron, would have been more *à propos.*

In another passage, we meet with a complaint which, if it were just, would still be rather ludicrous: but really we do not think (with the author) 'that the Blakes, the Afflecks, and the Marlboroughs' of a former day 'have *fled from their posts*, without being replaced by the Nelsons, the Stewarts, and the St. Vincents' of our own. We might add the names of many heroic Dukes, and Marquisses, and Earls, and Admirals,

> 'Whose libell'd persons, and whose pictur'd shapes,'

are at this moment swinging over ten thousand alehouse-doors in the United Kingdom.

Out of the numerous examples of brilliant imagination, of logical argument, of various knowlege, and, above all, of original thinking, which we had marked for selection from this excellent body of notes, we are reluctantly compelled to present only one specimen to our readers: — but we must refer them, especially, to the note on line 66. of Canto Ist, where the question of an original difference in the powers of different minds is clearly though concisely discussed; to that on line 164. where the plan of the British Institution is duly praised, and the most generous admiration is excited by the talents of a Wilkie; to that on line 211., where a system of study, in which the painter and the draughtsman co-operate, is luminously sketched; to that on line 252. where the culture of the mind,—in the best part of that culture, the art of thinking,—is forcibly recommended; and to that on line 300., where the freedom of taste is nobly emancipated from the fetters of precedent, without any discouragement of judicious imitation; where Nature is assigned her due province and Art becomes her intelligent handmaid, and where the peculiar defects and merits of the English and French school, with their causes, are precisely ascertained. When we add to this list the remark that all these instructive and lively annotations are to be found among the notes of the first Canto; and that the passage which we are about to transcribe is also taken from the same portion of the work, — when we farther assure our readers that every other part of the commentary is equally laboured and equally successful in its execution, — we think that they will be disposed to agree with us that the interests of art, and (we will hope) the honour of our country, through the promotion of those interests, have never met with a more valuable friend than the present author. We shall now leave him to make his own impression, at parting, on the minds of the audience.

'The merits of design require the more attention and encouragement from those who are sensible of their superior importance, in proportion as they are but little understood or esteemed by the common class of critical observers. With respect to the higher attainments of Art, indeed, the general feeling appears to be particularly defective. The beauties of form, character, and composition, are neither so interesting to the public, nor so much cultivated by the painter as other qualities of art, which must be considered of an inferior description.

'Colouring and chiaro-oscuro, force and execution, are merits more popular with the one, and consequently more studied by the other. The ideal is subordinate to the mechanical; Rembrandt is more felt than Raphael; and although in painting, and in music, the taste of the Italian school is always spoken of with rapture by the dilettanti of both arts; it nevertheless appears to have made but little real progress amongst us. Neither our eyes nor our years are yet sufficiently cultivated to be thoroughly impressed with its peculiar excellence, or scientifically sensible in what its superiority consists. There is even a kind of national prejudice, which militates against its advancement, and which looks upon its progress with an eye of suspicious discontent, as if it were an invasion of our taste, which our patriotism should endeavour to repel:

> But we brave Britons foreign laws despised,
> And kept unconquer'd and uncivilized;
> Fierce for the liberties of wit, and bold,
> We still defy the Romans, as of old. Pope.

The true John Bull, who is often to be found amongst those whose rank forbids us to class them with the vulgar, thinks it a duty of public spirit to set his face against all outlandish refinements, and is proud to prefer a ballad to a bravura; or the humours of Hogarth to the sublimities of Michael Angelo. Even the few who are forward to disclaim this barbarism, and who profess the most delicate sensibility to the higher merits of painting and music, appear sometimes so mal-apropos in the expression of their raptures, as to excite a suspicion that fashion is the prompter, rather than feeling. The aukward application of our praise frequently lessens its value by proving it not to be the tribute of judgment. The strong spirit of our admiration is not yet sufficiently refined; it still discovers a sediment of prejudice, and a flavour of false taste. We almost invariably applaud the difficult, instead of the agreeable, and mistake the vice of the means for the perfection of the end. We prefer the strong impulse of surprise to the delicate touch of delight, and are seldom satisfied unless we are astonished. A rapid succession of demisemiquavers poured forth in a fantastic variety of flights and flourishes, to the utter confusion of melody and common sense, we admire as the perfection of music. A mechanical slight of hand, a fluttering dexterity of pencil, or a laborious minuteness of vulgar imitative detail, we approve as the excellence of Art. We forget that the most obvious are not the most arduous difficulties; that the most exquisite efforts of skill are often concealed in their own ingenuity, and least palpable when most successful.

'"Ars est celare artem," is an old authority, which seems falling into disrepute—a maxim of critical jurisprudence, overlooked among the novel enactments of the modern code. Our Taste, like a good housewife, delights in stir and bustle: violent exertion carries with it an air of busyness and ability, which bespeaks our good will. We are more excited by the jumping agility of the rope-dancer, than the easy grace of natural movement. This tendency to be caught by practical exploits, and Sadlers Wells wonders, perverts our judgement more or less, through all its operations; for every art may be said to have its rope-dancers and its tumblers, who exhibit their tricks for the public gratification, and ever tottering on the edge of difficulty, endeavour to extort from our astonishment, that applause which they know they cannot expect from our Taste.'

Art. VII. *A plain Statement of the Bullion-Question*, in a Letter to a Friend. By Davies Giddy, Esq. M. P. 8vo. pp. 48. 2s. Stockdale. 1811.

The number of tracts on the subject of Banks and Bullion seems to increase in a progressive ratio, as the period of legislative discussion has approached. It is, however, much to be doubted whether the extent of information on the part of the public has advanced, in proportion to the variety of lights which the writers of pamphlets have been kind enough to hold out; and we have heard it brought forwards as a subject of complaint, that those who have had the courage to travel through these multifarous compositions have often found their attention withdrawn from the main road into bye paths, by the limited and partial views of their guides. Perplexity is thus the consequence of the perusal of any considerable number of these productions; and a similar effect may, in some degree, be produced among the readers of Reviews, by the exhibition of the varying sentiments of different writers. We shall, therefore, at present, postpone some recent publications to a future number, and confine our immediate criticism to one writer; following up our comments on his pamphlet by a brief statement of our own opinions on the Bullion-question: which may somewhat assist our readers in their consideration of the parliamentary investigation which will have commenced when these pages issue from the press.

Mr. Giddy begins by informing his readers that his object is not so much to place the subject in a new point of view, as to divest it of its intricacy, and pave the way to its more easy comprehension by the public at large. One of his first positions is that gold is liable to vary in its value, from abundance or scarcity, like any other commodity; and he illustrates this idea by supposing, for a moment, the existence of a currency consisting of sealed bags of corn. These bags, he says, will differ in their value, relatively to other things, according as the stock of corn is small or great: but, relatively to each other, similar bags will always be of the same value. It is vain, therefore, he adds, to allege that any material difference can long exist between coin and bullion, or to deny that a currency is depreciated after having fallen below the value of bullion. He next adverts to the nature and origin of bills of exchange, and adds a short explanation of the progress of banking. The idea on which he chiefly dwells is the change in the demand for specie consequent on the introduction of paper-money, a change which implies the conversion of a stock of specie, which before-hand was barely a sufficiency, into one of superabundance. The diminution in the value of coin by the increased produce of the mines has long been maintained by political economists: but its fall from the substitution of paper is a more recent, and, in several points, a more doubtful doctrine.—Coming next to the grand practical question, whether our bank-notes are or are not depreciated, Mr. G. gives a decision in the affirmative, and founds his opinion on the state of our foreign exchanges, as well as on the enhanced price of our home commodities. Like several other writers on the Bullion-question, he seems to be unconscious of the operation of taxes in raising prices: though he appears (p. 34.) to be fully apprized of the influence of our treasury-transactions in giving a steady current value to our paper; that is, he is aware that paper, as long as it can be paid away in taxes, and in taxes of such magnitude as ours, is not likely to undergo any sudden depreciation.

The author proceeds in the next place (p. 37.) to treat of country-banks; and here we cannot help remarking that he is much too positive and absolute in his assertions. He appears to adopt the popular notion that the Bank of England has the power of increasing its issues at pleasure, and that the restrictions on country-banks are not much more definite. He concludes by recommending that the reduction of Bank of England-notes should take place gradually; the advances to government, and the discounts to merchants, undergoing each a progressive reduction. After an attempt to condense his previous reasoning into a few comprehensive propositions, he takes leave of his readers by a postscript, expressive of his doubts respecting the efficacy of the present issue of Exchequer Bills in accomplishing the relief of the mercantile part of the community.

On

n the general merits of this pamphlet, we have to remark it is superior to the majority of publications on Banks and ion; and that, in particular, it possesses the rare advantage revity, many of the leading considerations of the question g here recapitulated in few words: but we cannot, in cri- justice, pronounce it to be either a complete inquiry into subject, or (which the author appears to have intended,) a ular explanation of it.

fter this brief sketch of the contents of Mr. G.'s 'Statement,' mains for us to lay before our readers a summary of our ideas on the Bullion-question. Having explained in former bers our views on particular points, the present article will ound to consist, in a great measure, of a recapitulation of arks already communicated through the medium of the thly Review, but which, from their detached shape, have ably wanted that clear and argumentative character to ch connection and arrangement are indispensable.

we go back to the æra, now eighteen years ago, at which commercial transactions began to suffer derangement from pressure of war, we shall find three remarkable years in history of our foreign *Exchanges*, — 1795, 1799, and 1810. ach of these, a striking similarity prevailed in the origin causes of public distress; deficient harvests, and heavy ns of specie to the Continent for political purposes, forming leading characteristics of each respective period. In 1795, laboured under the pressure of a short crop, and of a sub- to Austria; and the Bank, being liable to cash-payments, actually obliged to part with a considerable proportion of tock of specie, was forced to narrow its discounts. Hence e a state of mercantile distress which continued nearly two s, and the cure of which was administered by the cessa- of continental warfare that ensued on the rapid successes Bonaparte. The year 1798 was a period of continental ce, and of comparative prosperity to England: but in 1799, took on ourselves the double tax of subsidies to Austria and ssia, and were unhappily visited by a most unfavourable vest-season. The duration of the former of these burdens cut short by the capricious defection of the Emperor Paul, the decided superiority of Moreau and Bonaparte over the strian commanders: but the deficiency of corn was a cala- y more slowly remedied. The harvest of 1800, like that of preceding year, was unfavourable; and our importations, ugh large beyond all example, were found inadequate to our its. The pressure continued during 1801, and is generally sidered to have been one of the great causes which disposed ministry to make peace with France. The amount of debt from England to foreign countries, created by these unfavourable seasons, was estimated at the large sum of fifteen millions sterling *: the consequence of all which was a rapid fall in our continental exchanges, followed by an exportation of bullion, foreign coin, and eventually of guineas. Hence arose failures among our merchants, particularly among those who traded to the continent: these failures, though partial, soon created a general want of confidence; money was consequently circulated with less freedom and rapidity; and, as usual on these occasions, it soon became scarce to a degree beyond the extent of its actual diminution. The Bank was now required to come forwards in aid of commerce, by extending its discounts; and, being relieved from the necessity of cash-payments, the Directors did not, as formerly, refuse their consent. They enlarged their issues; and not having availed themselves of any subsequent opportunity to reduce them, the consequence was a permanent depreciation of their paper to the extent of nearly three per cent.

Such was the state of our money-system in 1802, and such it continued till the end of 1808: during all which time, the amount of bank-notes in circulation, and the rate of depreciation to which they were subject, remained the same. It was an interval, not indeed of commercial prosperity, but of exemption from any great commercial disaster. War was carrying on, and bringing with it an annual increase of burden: but our stock of money was little deranged by foreign subsidies; the engagements, which we began on two different occasions to form with our continental allies, having been brought, as before, to an early close by the rapid progress of Bonaparte. It is probable that we might have proceeded in this way for several years, and have felt the pressure of war only in a mitigated shape, had it not been for the system of *vigour* adopted by our ministry in the year 1807:—of which system, the measure that more particularly regards the present question was the stoppage of the American trade with the continent of Europe. The nature of that trade appears from the official returns made to Congress in 1806 to have been as follows: America exported annually to the continent of Europe, to the amount of nine millions sterling, and took back only half that value in goods; the remaining half being regularly remitted in bills to England, and forming, in regard to the exchange, a verypowerful counterpoise to the balance of payments which for many years has been due by us in our commercial and political transactions with the continent. All this ceased in the year 1808; the trade of the Americans to the continent having terminated in the early part of that year, and the course of remittances to England drawing to a close in the autumn. It was then that our continental exchanges underwent that fall from which they have never recovered.

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* See Mr. Jasper Atkinson's Letter, p. 50. (noticed in our Number for January last.)

The second cause, which contributed to the fall of our exchanges in 1808, is to be found in Bonaparte's attempt to usurp the crown of Spain, and our expences in resisting his perfidious designs. It happened unfortunately for the tranquillity of Europe, that both the English and the French governments made, at the same conjuncture, a signal departure from the rules of their former proceedings. While our ministers, by the seizure of the Danish navy, and the stoppage of the American trade, stooped so far as to assimilate the policy of Great Britain to the violence of revolutionary France, Bonaparte, intoxicated with his triumphs over Prussia and Russia, and impatient to domineer over the whole continent, ventured to throw off the disguise with which he had hitherto cloked his political intrigues. In his treatment of the Spanish court, he appears most unaccountably to have forgotten two things; first, that the preservation of character is necessary to the success of deception, in public as well as private life; and next, that by the removal of the royal family he was depriving himself of his most useful engines, and giving to the Spaniards the full benefit of whatever they possessed in the shape of national energy. Both these circumstances have contributed greatly to the prolongation of the contest. No panic-struck court was left to subscribe an ignominious treaty of peace; and the atrocity of the act was such as to shut the door of negotiation between France and England. During three years, the French treasury has been drained, and French armies have been progressively wasted, in the prosecution of this disgraceful war; while we on our part have reaped an ample harvest of renown, but at the expence of heavy demands on our resources, of men, money, and provisions. These demands unfortunately began at the time when we had deprived ourselves, by the stoppage of the American trade, of the customary counterpoise to our continental expences;—a coincidence which greatly aggravated their pressure on our money-market and our exchanges.

The third cause of the present irregularity in our money-system was somewhat later in its operation, and arose from the unfavourable harvest-weather of 1809. Our supply of corn has long been unequal to our consumption; and we have been paying to foreigners on that account, for some time back, an average sum of three or four millions annually. In the last year, however, this amount was doubled, and we found it necessary to expend more than seven millions for corn *. The mischievous operation of this circumstance on our foreign exchanges is too clear to stand in need of illustration; and even in times of profound tranquillity, we must continue to labour under great disadvantages relatively to our neighbours, if a necessity exists for the habitual importation of such expensive supplies.

It will not escape observation that, of the three causes which we have mentioned as affecting the exchange, the second and third have operated on former occasions, while the first is peculiar to the present time. The same may, in some measure, be said of the obstructions to our intercourse with the continent, which rank fourthly and lastly in the list of our mercantile grievances. These obstructions have been chiefly felt at two intervals, in the year 1808, and during the last six months. In 1809, and in a great part of 1810, we are induced to think, the freedom of our intercourse with the continent was greater than it is commonly believed to be; and the recent severity of Bonaparte's prohibitions is probably to be ascribed to hopes suddenly inspired by the irregular state of our currency. Like other men who are unacquainted with the principles of trade, Bonaparte appears to believe that all money is made by foreign commerce; and from ignorance of the productive powers of domestic industry, he flatters himself that the obstruction of our foreign intercourse will intercept the current of our prosperity at the fountain-head. Having thus strained every nerve to prevent the import of our goods into the continent, he has so far succeeded as to deprive us, for the present, of the benefit of those correctives which a free state of trade never fails to bring into operation. The natural tendency of a lowered exchange is to prompt the export of goods from the country whose currency has undergone depreciation, and to discourage imports, until, by the joint operation of the two causes, the rate of exchange again approaches its natural level: but so far from this being the case now, we have seen our continental exchange undergo a farther reduction of ten per cent. within these few months. It would be contrary to all former experience to imagine that this state of things can last, and either that the continent can manage without our goods, or that our merchants in the foreign trade will find it their interest to persist in making importations. For the present, however, we must acknowlege that both take place, and have the effect of withholding that antidote to the disorders of exchange which an altered state of commerce would not fail to supply.

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* See the official return to the House of Commons.

Having thus given a kind of narrative of the causes of the overthrow of our *Exchanges*, it remains for us to explain the consequences on the state of our *Currency*; and here we shall have no great difficulty in discovering that the present irregularities have their origin, not in the excess of our bank-notes but in their non-convertibility into cash. To speak of a high exchange with the continent is the same thing as to say that large remittances are wanted for the continent:—now goods are not admitted, our paper can have no currency beyond our own territory, and specie therefore must be found. Specie is accordingly bought up at a premium; and the difference between its value and that of paper shews clearly that, relatively to foreign countries, our paper is at a discount. How far any discount on it exists in our transactions among ourselves is a very different question. That the depreciation of three per cent., which has continued since the year 1800, and has been removed by no change of circumstances, is a depreciation of our paper, for inland as well as foreign purposes, seems to us to admit of no doubt: but we are inclined to think that, of the enormous discount on paper caused by our recent exchanges, a small part only has as yet found its way into our interior transactions. Our paper is current at its full value in payment of taxes, as well as in all bargains among ourselves; and of the commodities subject to a rise in price by the state of exchange, our importations from the continent appear to be the chief. That the influence of this enhancement, partial as it is, will be progressive, and that the evil calls loudly for remedy, we fully acknowlege: but we should, notwithstanding, have great difficulty in agreeing with the Bullion-Committee in the propriety of a compulsory resumption of cash-payments. Were excess of paper-currency the sole or even the chief cause, we should be far from presuming to question the justice of this recommendation: but the more immediate source of evil lies in our political and mercantile measures; and with a reform of these, in our opinion, the administration of the Bank-remedy ought to begin. Speedy would be the revolution in our exchanges, that would be produced by the permission of the American continental intercourse, along with a reduction of our continental expences; and until that revolution be accomplished, until the state of trade be such as to make an ounce of gold of nearly as great value in England as abroad, it seems vain to cherish an expectation of the possibility of cash-payments at the Bank. To issue an order, compelling the Bank to resume them under present circumstances, would be, in other words, a warning to that Corporation to contract their circulation by one half; a reduction which would no doubt raise the value of the remainder, but which would plunge our merchants and manufacturers into an abyss of distress, of which the horrors would far surpass any picture that the recent calamities of these classes can enable us to conceive.

In thus dissenting, partially, from the authority of the Bullion-Committee, it may be incumbent on us to express the reasons which appear to us to justify our opinion. The Committee, or at least the members whom rumour states to have taken a lead in framing the Report, were evidently better acquainted with the principles than with the practice of trade; and they do not appear to have been aware of the necessity of supplying this deficiency, by a rigid scrutiny of the documents contained in their appendix. The allotment of four months to the object of their appointment seemed perhaps to them, as it doubtless did to the public, an ample allowance of time; yet, such is the peculiar intricacy of this subject, and so numerous are the considerations which require comparison and analysis, that twice that period would not be more than sufficient for the attainment of digested and satisfactory conclusions. Had the Committee been adequately impressed with this persuasion, we are induced to think that, instead of bringing their labours to a close at the end of the last session of parliament, they would have continued them during the recess, and have delayed the completion of their Report till the winter. If this cautious and laborious course had been pursued, they would not have been assailed by so many complaints of variation from the evidence, and of inattention to the official documents; nor would they have laid themselves open to the serious charges of inaccuracy, which have been preferred against them by Mr. Bosanquet [*]. Among other things, they could scarcely have failed to reflect on the two circumstances which weigh materially in our minds against the influence ascribed to excess of Bank-paper; we mean, the steady maintenance of the value of that paper during six years, from 1802 to 1808, though issued in an increased quantity; and the remarkable fact that extra-issues, when they have occurred, have *followed*, *not preceded*, that rise in bullion which they are represented to have caused. At the same time, it is fit to state our conviction that the irregularity which we now witness would never have taken place, had not the Bank been exempt from the necessity of cash-payments. Bankruptcy among our merchants, and misery among our manufacturers, must, under any circumstances, have flowed from the public measures of 1807 and 1808: but the aspect of the evil would have been different; our Exchanges would not have been very materially depressed, nor would our Bullion have been much higher than our Notes; the stock of private distress would have been more immediate and probably more severe than it has yet proved, but its duration would unquestionably have been shorter.

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[*] See our Number for February last.

In regard, then, to the question which will probably be under legislative debate when these remarks come before the public, our judgment is that a resumption of cash-payments is impracticable until the exchanges be re-established by a restoration of freedom to the traffic of neutrals; a restoration, which seems to us to depend much more on the Masters of the Ocean than on the Ruler of the Continent. If we look back to the disorder introduced into mercantile affairs during the last three years by the singular proceedings of government, and if we are asked to venture an opinion, whether, supposing these proceedings to have been inevitable, the Bank-suspension has operated as a good or as an evil, we should probably be inclined to say, as a good, because we are induced to think that it has afforded a mitigation of the ills which political causes brought down on the commercial world: but if we are desired to take a more comprehensive view of the Bank-suspension, and to estimate its effects on our national prosperity from the beginning, a very different decision must be awarded. Without the aid which this measure has apparently given to our national resources, we are disposed to infer that our ministers would have looked for the means of retarding Bonaparte's aggrandizement in peace instead of in war; that we should not have been so eager to recall Lord Lauderdale from Paris in 1806, after the concessions that were made to us by France; that we should have counselled the courts of Austria and Russia to lie on their oars, instead of stimulating them to hostilities by our subsidies; and, finally, that we should have sought to maintain a friendly connection with our American brethren. The resources of civil administration would have been cultivated, and an experiment would have been made to prove whether the freedom of England or the despotism of France was more favourable to a progressive augmentation of political strength. Had such been our policy, it may be pronounced with confidence that we should not now have laboured under so great an accumulation of debt and taxes; and, with regard to the continent of Europe, the balance of probability is that its submission to Bonaparte would have been much less absolute and total. All his great acquisitions, whether of territory or of influence, have taken their origin from the defeat of Coalitions. It was our ill-judged confederacy of 1805 which led successively to the degradation of Austria, the fall of Prussia, and the delusion of Russia; and it was the disastrous aggression of Austria in 1809, which paved the way to Bonaparte's matrimonial conquest, to the incorporation of Holland, and to the usurpation of the crown of Sweden. If we go back to the pressure of foreign subsidies on our trade and finances, during the four years of war which preceded the Bank-suspension, and if we recollect how strongly the current of public feeling ran against the measures of the executive government, we may safely infer that, without the aid which was afforded by the substitution of paper, a change of foreign politics would have been necessary; and that war, at least *continental* war, would not have been the wish nor the destiny of the people of England.

Art. VIII. [*A*] *Refutation of Calvinism;* in which, the Doctrines of Original Sin, Grace, Regeneration, Justification, and Universal Redemption, are explained, and the peculiar Tenets maintained by Calvin upon those points are proved to be contrary to Scripture, to the Writings of the Antient Fathers of the Christian Church, and to the Public Formularies of the Church of England. By George Tomline, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln, and Dean of St. Paul's, London. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 590. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1811.

It is no compliment to the good sense and theological discernment of the present day, that a bulky volume of nearly six hundred pages, from the pen of a learned Bishop, should be necessary for the *Refutation of Calvinism*. Long has it been our opinion that a plain statement of the distinguishing doctrines of that system forms a sufficient refutation of it. If we admit the horrible and soul-appalling principles of the Geneva-Reformer, the Supreme Being cannot be an object of our love; religion cannot be obligatory; nor can the addresses of Revelation be considered in any other light than as tantalizing and insulting. Instead of receiving with meekness and humility the word of God as the guide of our life, and the foundation of celestial hope, Calvin elevates himself above the Deity, "re-judges his justice, is the God of God," pretends to penetrate into the Divine councils, and blushes not to attribute a *horrible* decree to his Maker, rather than renounce his own equally horrible doctrines*. No system of polytheism is half so revolting to the best feelings of our nature, and so abhorrent to all our notions of the Divinity, as that which this learned reformer propounded; and the admission of it, while it exhibits the God of mercy as the most cruel and unjust of Beings, tends to annihilate every notion of the merit and beauty of virtue and the odiousness of vice.

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* With reference to the doctrine of Reprobation, Calvin makes this confession, *Decretum quidem horribile, fateor;* on which the Bishop of L. observes: 'Is it not wonderful, that any one should ascribe to the God of all mercy a decree which he himself confesses to be *horrible?* And yet it must be acknowledged that Calvin was a man of piety, and of considerable talents and attainment. To what absurdities and inconsistencies will not the human mind be carried by a *blind attachment* to system!'

Yet, with all the strong objections which lie against Calvinism, many persons in the present day are hardy enough to espouse its cause, to represent it as orthodoxy, and to maintain its accordance with the doctrines of our public formularies. Such being the state of things in the religious world, the Bishop of Lincoln has judged it proper to enter into the most ample discussion of the subject which he has proposed; and his readers will not hesitate to award to him the praise of having sufficiently succeeded in the enterprise which he has attempted. When we say this, however, we would have it understood that we do not accord with his Lordship in all his doctrinal views and arguments; and we could have wished that, in a work designed for public use, the argument had been more compressed. Dr. Kipling's neat and satisfactory pamphlet*, though not here mentioned, had previously rescued the Book of Common Prayer from the imputation of Calvinism; and some passages which he had selected, especially on the subject of Reprobation, might have been added with effect to those which are extracted by the R. R. writer from the volumes of the Geneva-reformer. On the other hand, quotations from the Antient Fathers might have been *abbreviated* without loss; and we think that the passages from Calvin, quoted for the purpose of giving a correct apprehension of his tenets, ought to have been first stated as matter of evidence, previously to the institution of an inquiry into their reasonableness and truth. It will be seen, however, that the Bishop has spared no pains towards completing the examination of his subject; and though he will not please all the sects of anti-calvinists, nor satisfy the fastidiousness of men who are in the habit of philosophising more boldly on religion than those who are confined by 'attachment to system,' he has certainly acquitted himself as a champion of the Established Church in a manner which the clergy in general will deem satisfactory. We shall endeavour fairly to appreciate the merit of the work, and at the same time shall not hesitate to point out in what respects we differ from the learned author.

In the first chapter, which treats of Original Sin, Free-will, and the operations of the Holy Spirit, the possibility of obedience, the energy of man as well as the operation of God, and the existence of Free-will, are maintained. The R. R. writer admits a depravity or corruption of nature, but he does not distinguish between this and Original Sin. Of the former, we can have some notion: but the latter is utterly impossible; for if we define sin, according to the Assembly's Catechism, to be "a want of conformity unto or transgression of the law of God," it may be asked, how can sin be affirmed of a Being before he had existence? To assert that we sinned in Adam is not less ridiculous than to say that we got drunk or committed fornication in Adam. Personal virtue and vice cannot exist by proxy; and we are surprised that the Bishop of Lincoln, with his philosophical education, and with *F.R.S.* affixed to his name, should adopt the untenable notion of Adam having been the representative of the human race, and of our having *sinned in him*, in the first transgression.

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* *See Rev. Vol. xl. N.S. p. 438.*

Admitting, however, the possibility of this circumstance, still it is here contended that original righteousness is not entirely lost,—that all the good qualities and principles with which man was at first created are not absolutely destroyed. The sacred scriptures proceed on this principle. It is manifest that 'the positive injunctions to obey, and the earnest exhortations to reform, which we so frequently meet with in the O. T., plainly shew that the incorrigible depravity of human nature was not a doctrine inculcated under the Mosaic dispensation.' We may quote Romans ii. 15. to prove that mankind had always a rule of life, a natural law, implanted in the heart, to which they were capable of yielding obedience; and if we turn to the Gospel of Christ, we shall find that all its exhortations and addresses rest on the doctrine of the religious capability of man.

"I am not come," says Christ, "to call the righteous, but sinners to repentance;" we may therefore affirm, upon the authority of our Blessed Saviour himself, that there is at least a degree of righteousness in some men. I am aware that Commentators, who wish to reconcile this passage to the Calvinistic system, explain the word "Righteous" by "those who consider themselves righteous;" but it is evident from the occasion on which this declaration was made, that the word will not admit of that interpretation.'—'By the word "righteous," in this and several other passages of Scripture, we are to understand those who are comparatively righteous, which is fully sufficient for our doctrine; men who had some sense of moral and religious obligation, and endeavoured to act in conformity to it: such persons did not want Μετανοια, a complete change of mind, an entire abandonment of old habits. Persons of this character are expressly acknowledged in the New Testament. "Joy shall be in heaven over one sinner that repenteth, more than over ninety and nine just persons which need no repentance."

'Let us next consider the Parable of the Sower, and particularly the explanation of that seed which fell on good ground, and sprang up, and bare fruit; "that on the good ground," says Christ, "are they which in an honest and good heart, having heard the word, keep it, and bring forth fruit with patience:" here we have again our Saviour's authority for saying, that there is some honesty, some goodness of heart in the human race; and that different men possess these virtuous qualities in different degrees, since of the seed which fell upon good ground, some brought forth "an hundred fold, some sixty, some thirty" And surely the admonition which follows this Parable, "Take heed therefore how ye hear," implies that the impression which the truths of the Gospel make upon the minds of men, depends upon the manner in which they attend to them, that is, upon the exercise of their own reason and free-will. To what purpose would this advice be given, if men had not the power of resisting the wiles of the devil, of supporting the trials of persecution, and of withstanding the temptations of the riches and pleasures of this world, the three causes to which our Saviour ascribes the failure of religious instruction?

'Christ said to his disciples, "Ask, and it shall be given you; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you; for every one that asketh, receiveth; and he that seeketh, findeth; and to him that knocketh, it shall be opened." These commands to ask, to seek, and to knock, prove, that our Saviour required some voluntary steps to be still taken by those who were already persuaded of the divine origin of the doctrines which he taught: and his assurance that every one that asketh, receiveth; that he that seeketh, findeth; and that it shall be opened to him that knocketh, imply, that if men do not ask, they will not receive; if they do not seek, they will not find; and if they do not knock, it will not be opened to them; that is, they will in vain hope that their "heavenly Father will give the Holy Spirit to them," if they do not by their prayers and exertions endeavour to obtain his favour and assistance.'

On the subject of the influences of the Spirit, we suspect that Dr. T. is not always consistent with himself. In one place, (p. 25.) he makes *hearing* and *believing* to precede the communication of the Spirit; in another, (p. 60.) he speaks of the Grace of God *preventing* us; and in another, (p 61.) of the Grace of God and the will of man 'acting together *at the same moment*.' He is correct, however, in asserting that neither in the Scriptures, nor in our Public Formularies, is the exertion of irresistible grace declared; and it is judiciously added,

'It is not our business to speculate upon what God could have done to cause our obedience and secure our salvation: it is enough for us to search the Scriptures, and learn what God actually has done and promised, and then to consider what remains to be done by ourselves After all the volumes which have been written upon the subject, the argument against the doctrine of irresistible grace lies in a very narrow compass. It has pleased God to make us responsible beings; responsibility cannot exist without free-agency; free-agency is incompatible with an irresistible force; and, consequently, God does not act with irresistible force upon our *minds*.'

In the second chapter, which treats of Regeneration, a more nice than just distinction is attempted between *regenerating* and *renewing*; and the highest praise is bestowed on our reformers, because they *never* apply the word *Regeneration* to any operation of the Holy Ghost, except at the time of baptism. In our judgment, the instance here brought to prove that the compilers of our Liturgy 'were more accurately acquainted with the doctrines and language of the N. T. than the divines of any other age or country since the days of the apostles,' is somewhat unfortunate, because Peter (1. Chap. i. 3.) speaks of believers being regenerated by the resurrection of Christ; and because, if regeneration 'in its true sense signifies (see p. 95.) an *inward effect* produced by the Holy Ghost through the means of baptism,' it is not easy to perceive how this effect can be produced at the baptism of an infant. Of this change, the subsequent life gives no sign; and it is certainly more rational to consider baptism as an act of solemn dedication of the person baptized to the privileges and obligations of the Christian religion, than to represent it as conferring Regeneration. This transmutation of the heart by baptism resembles the change which is supposed by the Catholics to take place at the consecration of the elements. In both cases, we believe the transformation to be purely imaginary.

On the topics of Justification, Faith, and Good Works, many excellent observations occur in the third chapter. The account of the general meaning of the word Justification is, we think, very accurate, and accords with Dr. Taylor's view of it, in his Key to the Apostolic Writings: but the Bishop's observation, 'Not a single passage can be found in the Epistles, or indeed in any part of the New Testament, in which Justification or justify, when applied to Christians exclusively, that is, when treated of as belonging to them as such, denotes the sentence to be pronounced at the day of judgement,' is rather too universal; since the very text which he himself quotes at p. 98. Matth. xii. 36. refers to our justification at the day of judgment. Here, "by *thy* words," &c. our Saviour means to include the disciple with the rest of his hearers; and we know not that the application of the phrase 'exclusively to Christians' could alter its meaning. Taylor distinguishes between the first and the second justification.

Respecting Faith and Works, the Bishop thus speaks:

'In reality, true Christian Faith, and Good Works pleasant and acceptable to God, are in their own nature inseparable. True Faith produces Good Works as naturally as a tree produces its fruit: Good Works, wherever they exist, must proceed from Faith, their only genuine source. And hence it happens, that the one is often mentioned in Scripture without the other, although the other is implied or supposed. Thus St. John tells us that he wrote his Gospel, that men "might believe that Jesus is the Christ the Son of God, and that believing they might have life through his name." No one can imagine that the beloved disciple of Christ meant a bare belief that Jesus was the Messiah — the whole tenor of his Gospel proves that he must have understood a belief productive of obedience. On the other hand, St. Paul says, "They who by patient continuance in well-doing, seek for glory, and honour, and immortality, shall inherit eternal life." Here is not a word concerning Faith; but it is supposed, for nothing but Faith can cause a patient continuance in well-doing with the hope of everlasting happiness. There are, however, more passages in the Epistles which attribute Justification and Salvation to Good Works, than to Faith; and more exhortations to the practice of virtue, than there are arguments and discussions for the establishment of a right belief.'

On the style of preaching among the modern Calvinists, the R. R. author animadverts; adding,

'The doctrine of Salvation through Faith, if rightly understood, is strictly scriptural; and I do not mean to say that any bad effects are intended by insisting solely or principally upon this one point. But I think that this style of preaching is imperfect and dangerous; and in support of my opinion I will venture to affirm, that the New Testament does not furnish one discourse of our Saviour, one sermon of any of his Apostles, or one Epistle, in which there is not an exhortation to the practice of moral virtue, or in which a reward is not promised to holiness of life. Let the preachers, to whom I allude, read the conclusions of those very Epistles, upon particular passages of which they lay so much stress, and they will find the most earnest injunctions to the performance of the relative duties, and a variety of declarations and precepts all tending to encourage the cultivation of practical virtue. Let them constantly bear in mind the solemn direction given by St. Paul to Titus, whom he had appointed a preacher of the Gospel, and let them observe that it immediately follows the assertion, that we "are justified by grace;" "This is a faithful saying, and these things I will that thou affirm constantly, that they which have believed in God, might be careful to maintain Good Works: these things are good and *profitable* unto men." Justification therefore by grace, so far from rendering Good Works unnecessary, is the ground upon which they are to be enforced by a Christian minister; "they are," says Dr. Doddridge, "to be the darling topics of your preaching, as you desire the edification and Salvation of your hearers."'

It has often occurred to us, when speculating on the controversy about Faith and Works, and on the representations given by divines of the doctrine of *Merit*, that they make a distinction in the former instance between two acts of the mind which is not strictly just, and speak of the latter without that precision which is necessary to a full solution of the difficulty that presents itself. In what is Faith more commendable than Bene-

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Chap. IV. on Universal Redem

an is enabled to attain Salvation through the merits of Christ, was rectly opposed by Calvin, who maintained, that God from all eter-ity decreed that certain individuals of the human race should be saved, and that the rest of mankind should perish everlastingly, without the possibility of attaining Salvation. These decrees of Election and Reprobation suppose all men to be in the same condition in consequence of Adam's Fall, equally deserving of punishment from God, and equally unable of themselves to avoid it; and that God, by his own arbitrary Will, selects a small number of persons, without respect to foreseen Faith or Good Works, and infallibly ordains to bestow upon them eternal happiness through the merits of Christ, while the greater part of mankind are infallibly doomed to suffer eternal misery.'

As we have said, so blasphemous a doctrine must appear to every man of sense to be refuted in its very statement. Can we think honourably of God, and believe that 'he offered Salvation to men on a condition which it was impossible for them to perform; and that he inflicts punishment for the violation of a command, which they were absolutely unable to obey? Would not this be to attribute to God a species of mockery and injustice, which would be severely reprobated in the conduct of one man towards another?'— After having pursued his refutation at some length, and with some animation, Dr. T. asks:

> 'Could a just and merciful God endow men with the admirable faculties of perception and reason, place them in a transitory world abounding with enjoyments and temptations, and, by an arbitrary and irreversible decree, deny them the means of escaping everlasting torment in a life to come? This pernicious error, into which it must be allowed some pious persons have fallen, sufficiently proves, that in considering the divine economy, we ought ever to bear in mind the harmony which subsists between all the attributes of God, as the only way by which we can avoid opinions derogatory to his perfect nature. We know that the power of God is competent to every thing which contains not in it the idea of impossibility or contradiction. But because God was able to create man for this or that purpose, it does not follow that he actually has done so. We are to examine whether the purpose in question be reconcilable to his wisdom, his mercy, and his justice; and if any inconsistency with these perfections appears in any proposed system, we need not hesitate to pronounce the system false and groundless.'

While this learned writer manifests a laudable zeal in *reprobating Reprobation*, we were not a little surprised that he was not struck with the near affinity of the doctrine of *Everlasting Punishment* to that tenet which he so vehemently condemns as repugnant to every idea of divine justice and mercy. We avoid entering on the examination of some passages in the Epistle to the Romans, which are considered as favourable to the Calvinian hypothesis; being of Jerome's opinion, as given at p. 394. that "the Epistle to the Romans stands in need of explanation, and is involved in so great obscurities, that to understand it we have need of the Holy Ghost, who dictated these things to the Apostle."

To prove that the Antient Fathers maintained doctrines in direct opposition to the peculiar tenets of Calvinism, a long string of quotations occupying 240 pages is given, including the writings of the Fathers from Ignatius, a contemporary of the Apostles, to Theodoret, A.D. 423. ; and the Bishop challenges 'the Calvinists (preface p. vii.) of the present day to produce an author prior to Augustine, who maintained what are now called Calvinistic opinions.' Not satisfied with marshalling the noble army of Antient Fathers in battle array against his opponents, he proceeds to discover among the antient Heretics a consonancy of sentiment with them ; and by this stroke he robs the Calvinists of the honour of orthodoxy, and adroitly places them in the rank of Heretics. As a summary, we are presented with an historical account of Calvinistic Doctrines ; and the result of the whole inquiry is given in these few concluding words : 'Our Church is not Lutheran—it is not Calvinistic—it is not Arminian. — It is Scriptural : it is built upon the Apostles and Prophets, Jesus Christ himself being the chief corner-stone.'

We are persuaded that all parties will be ready to admit that, as a vindication of the Church of England from the charge of rigid Calvinism, this work of the Bishop of Lincoln will be allowed to be successful : but some readers will still doubt how far it is strictly scriptural ; and whether our Reformers have accomplished all that was necessary to the perfection of our public ritual. The influence of system and education is powerful even in men of the strongest minds, who are often partial to an extreme that is not warranted by reason, and are tenacious even to the injury of truth.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1811.

POETRY.

Art. 9. *The First Book of Poetry*, for the Use of Schools. Intended as Reading Lessons for the younger Classes. By William Frederick Mylius. 12mo. 3s. Bound. Godwin. 1811.

This volume is a sort of introduction to Mr. Mylius's 'Poetical Class Book ;' and among the variety of poems and extracts which it contains, it has the merit of offering none that can be unintelligible or uninteresting to the very young readers for whom the work is intended.

The compiler has shewn as much good sense as taste in the choice of his subjects, and we apprehend that his industry cannot fail of being rewarded by the improvement of those for whose service it is exerted.

Art. 10. *The Poetical Class Book:* or Reading Lessons for every Day in the Year. Selected from the most popular English Poets, ancient and modern. For the Use of Schools. By William Frederick Mylius. 12mo. 5s. Bound. Godwin.

The propriety of accustoming young persons to read poetry aloud is generally acknowledged; and the present selection will be useful, not only in giving them a taste for this kind of reading, but in teaching them to understand the merits and to distinguish the manner of our most eminent poetical authors, at the same time that they will be enriching their memories with many of the most pleasing and beautiful passages contained in their works.—We think that the methodical arrangement of the extracts must increase the utility of this compilation.

Art. 11. *Dunkeld; The Prodigal Son; and other Poems,* including Translations from the Gaelic. By Petrus Ardilensis. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Baldwin. 1811.

The notes to each of these compositions are longer than the poems themselves, and the traditions which are related in them receive no additional effect from the versification. The fables are extravagant, and the epigrams are tame; but we think that the author is tolerably successful in his imitations from the Gaelic, though, in the translation of 'Trathal,' he has employed the pronouns *thou* and *you* alternately;

> '*Thou* well rememb'rest, lovely light,
> The chiefs of fame on Morven's height;
> For ere the eldest rose, *you* shone,
> And still *you* shine, when all are gone!'

The lines intitled 'Morar and Arden' are not devoid of poetical merit.

NOVELS.

Art. 12. *Moral Tales.* By the late Author of "The Exemplary Mother." 12mo. 4s. 6d. Mawman. 1811.

We doubt not that these compositions were designed to promote the cause of virtue, and in most of them the moral tendency is unexceptionable; but in the stories of 'Belinda' and 'Almeria,' the deviations of those characters from the path of purity are too easily forgiven by their friends and by the world to make their histories beneficial to young female readers. The author has also disfigured many of her tales by employing the agency of fairies and conjurors in the support of Christian principles, and by mingling quotations from the Scriptures with Pagan incantations, in a manner which is equally incongruous and improper.

Art. 13. *Amatonda;* a Tale from the German of Anton Wall. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1811.

We have here an ingenious allegory, which in the original may deserve the encomiums that we are told it has obtained from German critics: but the translation is sometimes rendered obscure, by its partaking too much of the sudden transitions and half finished sentences which are usual in German compositions. The English reader will also be offended by the frequent departure from Oriental manners which occurs in what is called a Persian tale, and by the broad and improbable burlesque which is conveyed in the stories of *Selim* and of *Murad*.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *True Stories*, or interesting Anecdotes of Children; designed, through the Medium of Example, to inculcate Principles of Virtue and Piety. By the Author of "Lessons for Young Persons in humble Life." 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

These little anecdotes are related in simple and pleasing language, and they receive value from their authenticity as well as their morality. They will form an agreeable addition to many youthful libraries, and the compiler has displayed judgment in the greater part of the selection.

Art. 15. *A German and English Spelling Book*, for the Use of Children, to assist them in the true Pronunciation of the German: designed chiefly for the German School in the Savoy. By G. Schilling, Master of the said School. 12mo. pp. 48. Escher.

With such perplexing and unintelligible guides as spelling-books often are, we cannot help feeling pity for those who are to pass twice over the same rugged road, in learning to read a foreign language as well as that of the country in which they live. Mr. Schilling, however, seems to regard it as necessary that his pupils should go through this task; and his little volume will be useful to such as absolutely stand in need of a spelling book to teach their children to read the German language. That children might, however, without additional labour, learn to understand words while they learn to read them, and that [illegible] first sentences which they peruse ought not only to be perfectly intelligible to them but also amusing and attractive, Mr. S. has not sufficiently considered, or he would have chosen different subjects for his first exercises in reading.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 16. *Grounds of Union between the Churches of England and of Rome considered*, in a Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Durham, at the ordinary Visitation of that Diocese in the Year 1809. By Shute, Bishop of Durham. 4to. 1s. 6d. Payne, &c. 1811.

This venerable prelate expresses the amiable wish of promoting an union between the Churches of England and of Rome: but we apprehend that the Romanists will not be inclined to listen to his suggestions, especially when he prefaces his plan of union by directly charging 'the doctrines of their church with involving habits of Sacrilege, Blasphemy, and Idolatry.' To Popery in its present form, the Bishop is openly hostile, and he sees no way of accommodating the Catholics, unless they will consent to a new modelling of their faith. He, seems indeed, to be of opinion that the project is not hopeless, and that the present circumstances of Europe are favourable to a dispassionate investigation of the differences which separate the two churches in question. We, however, perceive no more disposition in Catholics to alter their tenets, in order to gratify a church which they consider as heretical, than in the Protestant ecclesiastics to admit Papists to civil privileges under existing circumstances.

On the subject of resisting Catholic claims, this prelate delivers himself in very strong terms:

'Their advocates, who plead so loudly for their rights of conscience, are altogether silent on the consideration that is due to the consciences of Protestants—a Protestant King, a Protestant Government, and a Protestant Clergy; who, in fidelity to their respective functions, feel themselves bound to resist the progress of Popery, and are persuaded, that to admit the Papists to the privileges which they solicit, without any renunciation, on their part, of the errors which distinguish their Church, would be to abandon all the principles adopted in the Reformation in one century, and in the Revolution in the next. What security can be given against the abuse of power in the hands of those whose principles and conscience are at variance with doctrines which we revere as Christians, and with rights which are most dear to us, as Englishmen, and members of the Established Church?'

Here is a very explicit declaration that Catholics, while they adhere to the present doctrines of their church, cannot, in the Bishop's estimation, be safely admitted to enjoy the privileges which they solicit: but the prospect of accommodation is nevertheless held out; and by the help of an *if*, Catholics and Protestants are brought together in perfect harmony:

'*If* we could convince them (which I trust, we may do; for truth will finally prevail), that it is *idolatry* to deify and worship the consecrated elements; that it is *sacrilege* to suppress half the Eucharist, in direct contradiction to our Saviour's Institution, to the example of the Apostles, and to the general usage of the Church for at least the first ten centuries; that it is *blasphemy* to ascribe to Angels and to Saints, by praying to them, the divine attribute of universal presence; that it is *impiety* to deny the sufficiency of our Saviour's sacrifice once offered; and that it is a *crime against the laws* and constitution of this free Empire, to admit a foreign supremacy and jurisdiction in any appointments, civil or ecclesiastical, of this country; if, I say, by persevering in a spirit of truth and charity, we could bring the Roman Catholics to see these most important subjects in the same light that the Catholics of the Church of England do, a very auspicious opening would be made for that long desired measure of CATHOLIC UNION, which formerly engaged the talents and anxious wishes of some of the best and ablest members of both Communions.'

We will not say that these are *ægri somnia:* but we may safely assert that Catholics will either receive such overtures as insults, or will smile at them as mere fancies. As Protestants, we think with the Bishop of D. that the Papists err in the above specified particulars: but it will not be easy to induce them to make their faith crouch to ours; and much less to bring them to subscribe to the principle that they ought to alter their religion as a previous step to their civil accommodation.

POLITICS.

Art. 17. *A Letter addressed to the Honourable the House of Commons,* on the Necessity of an immediate Attention to the State of the British Coinage; in which a new, prompt, and efficacious Remedy for its Defects is proposed. By Benjamin Smart, Goldsmith, and Licensed Dealer in Gold and Silver. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1811.

Mr. Smart begins this letter by apologizing for an attempt on the part of so humble an individual as a tradesman to give advice to the House of Commons, and mentions that he was induced to come forwards with his remarks in consequence of the favourable opportunity of observation, which has been afforded him by his particular branch of business. He is subjected, he says, to daily applications to sell guineas at a premium; a traffic which he disdains, but which, he regrets to add, is rapidly on the increase. The expedient which he proposes for the cure of this evil is no other than putting a *maximum* on bullion, by passing an act that it shall, on no account, be sold for more than the mint-price, or 3l. 17s. 10½d. an oz. This is the whole of Mr. Smart's 'new, prompt, and efficacious remedy;' and he enlarges on its advantages with all the ardour of a projector: condemning, at the same time, as wholly ineffectual, the recent measure of the Bank in raising the dollar to five shillings and sixpence.

It is scarcely necessary for us to observe that to put a *maximum* on bullion, or on any thing else, is wholly contrary to the principles of trade; and in regard to any additional matter in the present tract, we discover nothing which might not have been brought within the limits of a newspaper-paragraph.

Art. 18. *Reflexions on the Nature and Extent of the Licence Trade.* 8vo. pp. 78. 2s. 6d. Budd. 1811.

The licence-trade is in a great measure a new kind of business, and as yet very imperfectly understood by the public at large. It was customary, during the last as well as during former wars, to grant licences or official permissions to carry on certain branches of traffic, through the medium of neutral flags, with an enemy's country. These licences are documents signed by one of our secretaries of state, and addressed to all commanders of our ships of war and privateers. They are printed, and generally run in the same strain; their object being to prevent the interference of our cruizers with merchantmen engaged in a trade which, without these vouchers, might excite suspicion and lead to detention. Formerly, they were confined to the protection of British property: but since the Americans have been excluded from the continental carrying-trade by our

Orders in Council, the Board of Trade has found it necessary to give a more general character to our licences, as well as greatly to increase their number. We are informed, by the author of the pamphlet under review, that the whole number granted in 1809 was not short of 15,000. He is a decided enemy to the licence-system, and contends that it is liable to gross abuse; as also that it disseminates far and wide the practice of bad faith and immorality: while its contradiction to the spirit of our navigation-act supplies him with some popular arguments against it.

We were rather at a loss, during our perusal of the first part of the pamphlet, to comprehend the motive which led a writer, who is evidently more accustomed to do business than to moralize, to combat so stoutly under the banners of religion: but we found, on continuing our researches, that the author had a lively sympathy with our *quondam* subjects in America, and ventured, after long appeals to our own interest and respectability, to introduce an expostluation on the injustice of our conduct towards the United States. In short, it can admit of little doubt that this pamphlet is the production of some English merchant who is engaged in trade with America, and suffering severely by the exclusion of the Americans from the Continent. He is justified, and doubly justified, in calling on us to awake to the impolicy of our system: but the erroneous part of his conduct consists in attempting to effect by timid and indirect means that which he should have performed in a tone of boldness and decision. One of the reasons, and a very powerful one, against all paper-blockades is that, according to established law, and especially according to English law, it is requisite that the blockaded port shall be actually invested by a naval force: but on a topic of this nature we prefer to leave law out of the question, and confine the discussions to considerations of policy. As far as America is concerned, we fully agree with this writer that we are doing ourselves great injury by the interruption of our trade with the continent of Europe. That interruption has led, in our opinion, to two great evils; viz to a decline in the export of our manufactures to the United States, and to that alarming fall in our continental exchanges which has brought on the embarrassments of our money-system. However, when this author, not contented with the restoration of the American navigation, goes a step farther, and advises us to discourage the navigation of the nations in the North of Europe, we can agree with him no longer. Our opinion is that Great Britain will gain more than any other country by protecting commercial intercourse from the vexations of war; and that a system of moderation on our part is the best method of acquiring the attachment of the nations on the continent, and of exciting their detestation at the tyranny of Bonaparte.—In several respects, however, this is a good pamphlet, and calculated to instruct the public in regard to a topic which is very little known beyond the limits of mercantile circles.

MEDICAL.

Art. 19. *A practical Dictionary of Domestic Medicine*; comprising the latest Discoveries relative to the Causes, Treatment, and Prevention of Diseases. With a popular Description of Anatomy, Casualties, Chemistry, Cloathing, Dietetics, Pharmacy, Physiology, Surgery, Midwifery, Therapeutics, &c. &c. By Richard Reece, M. D. Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London, &c. &c. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co.

We have had occasion, more than once, to notice the publications of Dr. Reece, and we have been happy to be able to bestow on them a certain degree of commendation; they did not indeed exhibit any high specimen of literary talent: but they seemed to be written for the purpose of conveying information, and, on that account, they were intitled to our respect. We cannot, however, adopt the same language in the present instance, but are compelled to bestow on the work before us a very different character. It evidently appears to belong to that class which may be justly denominated *job-publications*; a species of writing which is almost constantly accompanied by a proficiency in the art of puffing, because the book-maker, knowing the poverty of his materials, is under the necessity of practising every indirect method of enhancing their value. This plan of puffing has been very sedulously pursued by Dr. Reece. He dedicates his Dictionary to the Archbishop of Canterbury, and denotes it as a work, 'calculated for the public good, and for promoting the cause of humanity.' Then in the preface we are told that

'This publication not only exhibits a full and correct view of the History, Nature, distinguishing Symptoms, and Treatment of every known Disease, and the management of Accidents and other cases of Emergency, which often prove fatal before medical aid can be obtained, but every important general subject of *Medical Police* and *Jurisprudence* connected with the health and well-being of society. These latter branches, it must be confessed, though of the first consequence, have been greatly overlooked in this country. That a regular Medical Police is loudly called for, the reflections of every writer sufficiently confirm; and the neglect of the Legislature in this respect has excited the warmest invectives. Medical Jurisprudence is a department of no less importance. Questions of life and death daily occur for the decision of a Jury; and though professional evidence is always delivered to direct this decision, yet it were well that every individual possessed such a degree of knowledge as to enable him to form some opinion for himself, and to make the bias of his own judgment the surest road to conviction. This is the more necessary, as in certain situations professional attendance is difficult to be obtained.'

The art of puffing is carried to its acmé at the conclusion of the preface, where the Doctor informs his readers that his work 'has met the full approbation of the higher orders of the Church, and that he has in a special manner to acknowledge very warmly the countenance he has received from the highest dignities of the Church, and other distinguished characters.' Then follows a list of above forty names of *archbishops*, *bishops*, *doctors of divinity*, *members of parliament*, &c. &c. the greatest part of whom, we hope, never saw the work, and all of whom must feel indignant on having their names brought forwards in such a manner, and on such an occasion. After what we have quoted respecting medical jurisprudence, we turned to the word 'Abortion,' knowing that this is a subject which gives rise to much curious legal investigation. We shall quote all that is said respecting it, under the title of 'Abortion procured by art:'

'This practice has been common from the earliest times, and in all ages, however rude, as we learn by the accounts of the latest navigators. The principle on which it is founded in civilized life is destructive of the very foundation of society, and therefore has been justly considered as highly criminal on the part of the individual who commits it: the effect of which is not only uncertain in producing abortion, but tends to ruin the constitution of the female, who thus severely suffers for her guilty attempt to destroy the fruit of her womb, by a state of ill health, often not to be repaired for the remainder of life.'

This will be a sufficient specimen of the Doctor's talent for medical jurisprudence.

We next determined to examine his physiology, and turned to the word 'Respiration;' where, according to the true manufacturing style, we were referred to the word 'Breath;' this article, however, consists of only four lines, and we are sent to 'Air.' The physiological part of this article consists of about two columns, which contain as many gross errors as could easily be crowded into so small a compass. We are told that the salubrity of air depends on the proportion of oxygen in it, that its employment in the cure of disease is daily gaining ground, and that its application in cases of suspended animation is 'attended with instantaneous success.' The author next asserts that azote accumulates where 'many are met in one place;' that 'the smell of fresh paint arises from its presence,' and that 'all places are filled with it when there is no access of fresh air.' Nothing is said respecting the action of the air on the blood or lungs: but this we thought might be found under Animal Heat, and therefore we turned to that article. Here the author begins by stating the fact, that 'men can live in a much greater heat than that of their own bodies;' and then he gives an abstract of the experiments of Dr. Fordyce and his friends, on the effect of high temperatures on the animal body, concluding the article with the following profound observations: 'After these experiments we may observe, that the origin of animal heat can only be explained on chemical principles, in that the arrangements which take place by the process of respiration affords the most ready solution. This is confirmed by the increase of heat in bed, where the action of the vessels is accelerated, and the respiration of course more frequent.'

If from this sample of the physiology we turn to a specimen of the medical and pharmaceutical parts, we find the article 'Purgative' dispatched in eight half-lines; and, under 'Foxglove,' three or four sentences are all that the author has deemed it necessary to say respecting so important a substance. Considering the critical nature of this remedy, we were absolutely shocked to observe the manner in which the subject is slurred over, in a work professedly designed for popular use. The practical directions are merely the following; 'The only thing to be guarded against is, the death like sickness with which it is apt to affect patients on its first use. It should be given in doses of one grain, and gradually increased according to circumstances.'— In turning over the leaves, our eye was caught by the word 'Gingerbread :' and we found that the articles 'Foxlove' and 'Gingerbread' are nearly of the same length.

These instances may perhaps satisfy our readers: the volume, indeed, abounds with similar examples of error and imperfection; and we must conclude by stating that we have seldom had occasion to examine a work which more loudly called for critical reprehension.

DISTILLERY-QUESTION.

Art. 20. *A Letter addressed to His Royal Highness the Prince Regent,* by a British Planter. 8vo. pp. 58. 2s. 6d. Lloyd. 1811.

In the discussions to which the distresses of our West India colonists have given rise, a considerable difference of opinion exists between the planters and the merchants; and it has so happened that the planters, without being better acquainted with the principles of trade than their mercantile friends, have adopted, from situation, the true side of the question. Their object is to have a free market for their produce; the plain inference from which is that such goods as the mother-country cannot take herself, she should allow to be sold on the spot to buyers from other nations. Such is the wish of the planters: but the merchants, having in general made them large advances for the sake of obtaining the transaction of their business, are jealous of any measure which would have the effect of diminishing the amount that passes through their hands. Hitherto the merchants have succeeded in carrying things their own way, having received the support of our executive government, whose conceptions of mercantile policy soar no higher than those of their predecessors a century ago. The writer of the present tract, being a planter, naturally takes part with others of the same class; and he ventures, though in very cautious terms, (p. 47.) to express disapprobation of the severity with which the monopoly continues to be enforced, particularly in the prohibition of barter with the United States of America. He enlarges also (p. 33.) on the hardship to the planter in being obliged to send all his sugar home in a raw state, instead of being allowed to refine it on the spot. This has long been felt in the number of West India grievances, and became the object of a specific Report from the Committee of the House of Commons in 1808: but nothing has been done to follow up that recommendation:— a backwardness which we are disposed to ascribe, not to opposition on the part of the sugar-refiners, who are neither numerous nor possessed of interest, but to an absurd belief on the part of some men in official situations that it is for the public interest to keep hold of manufactures of all kinds whatever.

The other topics, on which the writer of this tract has enlarged, are the exaggerations which the public are apt to make in regard to a planter's profit, and the inadequacy of our growth of corn to our consumption, even after we have saved all that we can by the substitution of sugar in the distillery. The latter is the great argument on the part of ministry, in the proceedings which are now pending in Parliament on the subject of a permanent admission of sugar to the distillery. In support of his claim for an extended barter with the United States, the writer of this pamphlet adduces the authority of Mr. Pitt; who, when first in office in 1783, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought in a bill to regulate the intercourse between Great Britain and the United States, *on the most enlarged principles of reciprocal benefit to both countries*. Unfortunately, the bill was lost by the change of ministry which ensued; and the clamour against the Americans prevented any future arrangement on an equally liberal scale.

In regard to its merits as a composition, this tract has the appearance of being a juvenile production. The author would do well to avoid common-place quotations, as in page 57.; and perhaps such effusions as are displayed in the beginning against the insatiable ambition of Bonaparte. His publication, however, is a good summary of the leading circumstances in the case of the West India planters; and the measures which he recommends for their relief seem to us to be approximations to the dictates of sound and enlightened policy.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Spencer Perceval,* Chancellor of the Exchequer, on the subject of the Distillery Bill now pending before Parliament; shewing that Bill to be most unjust and impolitic; and among other things demonstrating that no Part of the Revenue of the Kingdom is paid by the West India planter. By J. Cruickshank, A. M. of Marischall College, Aberdeen. 8vo. pp. 27. 1s. 6d. Richardson.

Mr. Cruickshank is one of the warmest disputants that we have encountered for a considerable time. He appears to be a convert to the curious doctrine of Mr. Spence, that all taxes are defrayed by the agriculturists; and he calls loudly on the legislature, in the event of the admission of sugar into the distillery, to remit to the farmer, in the shape of taxes, as much as he may appear to lose by the reduction in the price of barley. Dependent, however, as we are on foreign countries for a supply of corn, it seems to us very unlikely that the price of that commodity, particularly in England, will be affected by the want of the distillery-consumption. If the question lay between our planters and farmers, we should have no hesitation in preferring the claims of the latter: but, as long as we pay three or four millions to foreigners for corn, it is in our opinion the foreign agriculturist alone who will suffer by any small savings in the amount of our consumption. These savings are the more to be desired, also, on account of the unfortunate influence of our corn-importations on the state of the exchange.—Mr. Cruickshank writes in such haste that it is no easy matter to discover the real nature of his views; which in some respects may be, we are inclined to think, "*marqués au coin de la bonne politique,*" though disfigured by the recurrence of "sir, sir," and other apostrophes of equal elegance.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Principles of Mental and Moral Philosophy.* To which is prefixed, Elements of Logic. By Wm. Enfield, M. A. assisted by eminent Professional Gentlemen. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Tegg.

This cheap little book is full enough of kernel. It consists principally of extracts from eminent writers on the philosophy of thought. The passages selected describe, explain, and comment on such intellectual phænomena as are most conspicuous, or most interesting: they are also systematically arranged, and are interpolated with original paragraphs perspicuously composed, which supply various deficiencies of the borrowed text. Thus has been formed a compendious sketch of the theory of mind, a manual of metaphysics, an Aristotle in a nutshell.

One inconvenience, however, results from this method of making treatises by the juxta-position of heterogeneous parts, which is, that a want of consistency and of unity of design is manifest in the execution; and at times even an incompatibility of idea between the different segments of the work. A second inconvenience is that those, who will suffer other writers to think for them throughout a page and a half, will commonly allow themselves to be thought-for half a page too long. Either from indolence, or from internal scarcity of ideas, they rely on authority where authority is not trustworthy; and no entire coherence can exist in those trains of thought which have not undergone a personal examination.

The Introduction contains a short theory of logic. In the first page, the writer tells us that ‘ the great end of philosophy is emancipation from error,’ and he immediately subjoins the declamatory commonplace, “ Ignorance would be no evil, were not error its inseparable accompaniment.” Now this latter proposition is so absurd as to create an instantaneous prejudice against the vigilance of a writer who can repeat it. If we restore its present abstract to some concrete form,—“ Ignorance of the use of fire would be no evil, were not errors in the theory of combustion its inseparable consequence,”—who does not in this form see at once that the proposition is indefensible?

The selections from Adam Smith which follow, (p. xi. to xv.) especially his celebrated comparison of theory to a bridge, are good; not so the selections from Newton at pp. xvi. and xvii. Newton excelled in the mathematical rather than in the verbal forms of syllogism; and his *first* rule of philosophizing is clearly unfounded. Why is the simpler theory the truer? Dr. Franklin's theory of positive and negative electricity is simpler than the previously established theory of two distinct fluids: but it has not been found to be the true theory. Men preferred it awhile, on the principle of Adam Smith's *bridge*; it afforded an easier passage to the mind, and burdened the memory less: but as soon as it was perceived that one arch would not subtend the flood to be crossed, two were again employed. The success of a theory may be favoured by its simplicity: but this does not supply, as Newton here teaches, any criterion of truth.

In Newton's *third* rule of philosophizing, occurs the exceptionable combination of words, *vis inertiæ.* These contradictory terms are used to designate a property, rashly perhaps ascribed to matter by Newton, of being indifferent to rest or motion, and tending to persevere in either, with undiminished force, according to the impression given. Modern inference considers it as probable that motion, like life, is a forced state, and only goes on like the rotation of a top by continual lashing.

In elementary books, the rank of axioms should not be assigned to any propositions which are still before the court; which so many of the learned question, and so many of the wise reject. The following most deceptious and most dangerous proposition is advanced at p. xx.: 'When an hypothesis is fully established, it becomes a fact.' How should the consent of men alter the nature of an hypothesis, and give exterior reality to that which had originally only an interior reality? When the councils of the Romish church voted their hypothesis concerning the hypostases to be true, could that vote affect the nature of Deity, the exterior reality? Certainly not.—The proposition ought to have been expressed thus: "When a given hypothesis becomes fully established, men omit the proofs of it in their reasonings, and apply it as a known truth.' A fact which is an exterior reality must remain a distinct thing from a judgement of the mind, which is only an interior reality.

If each chapter of the present volume were in this way to be examined with a dissecting knife, we fear that many considerable errors would be detected; yet, as the different topics discussed are commonly treated in the words of Locke, Watts, Hartley, Paley, Grant, Stewart, and other popular philosophers, these errors will commonly be found established, and therefore inoffensive:—the mind is accustomed to the bridge over which it is here directed.

The first part of the work treats of Mental Philosophy, and the second of Moral Philosophy, and it contains in all forty-two chapters. The book keeps in view a young public; and the obvious tendency of the whole is favourable to piety and virtue: but still it is a book made by the *eclectic* process, or, in plain English, with the scissars.

Art. 23. *Descriptive Guide to the Stream of Time,* or general Outline of Universal History, Chronology and Biography, at one View. Translated from the German of Frederic Strass, and continued down to the present Year, by W. Bell. 8vo. With a large engraved and coloured Sheet, 1l. 5s., or on rollers 1l. 15s. Vernor and Co.

The chart, of which this pamphlet is an explanation, is intitled a *Figurative Representation of Universal History;* and it professes not merely to combine the advantages of Dr. Priestley's well known charts of Biography and History, but to be an improvement on them. On the idea of time flowing as a *stream,* this delineation is projected; and Dr. Priestley's motto, *Fluminis* (or rather *fluminum*) *ritu feruntur,* would have been more appropriate than that which is adopted. Nothing short of an examination of the chart itself can convey a correct notion of the plan and the merit of its execution.

At one view, it presents to us the rise, progress, and decline of the several antient and modern nations of the earth; and by combining biography with general history, to an extent which has never been before attempted, as well as by giving a distinct *stream* of human inventions, the most illustrious personages, the most interesting facts, and the most useful improvements, which successive ages have furnished, are brought together with the most striking effect. We cannot help speaking in terms of approbation of this work. In seminaries of education, it may be employed with success; and when placed on rollers in the study of the scholar, it may be consulted with more ease than books, in order to ascertain dates and contemporaneous characters and events.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 24. Preached in the Cathedral Church of Lincoln, August 5, 1810, before the Hon. Mr. Justice Grose and the Hon. Mr. Baron Thomson, Judges of Assize. By the Rev. Charles Turnor, A.M. F.S.A. Vicar of Wendover, &c. 4to. Printed at Lincoln.

If nothing new and brilliant distinguishes this discourse, it contains nothing irrelevant or offensive. The preacher displays the consolations which result from the doctrine of an over-ruling Providence, and calls his countrymen to be thankful for the religion, justice, and liberty which they enjoy.

Art. 25. Preached at Berkley Chapel, March 20, 1811, the General Fast Day. By J. A. Busfield, A. M. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Mr. Busfield "*cries aloud, and spares not:*" though not declaiming on the state of politics, but on the transgressions of the age. Against the vanities, profligacy, profaneness, and impiety of the great, he fearlessly points his eloquence; and if our nobility and gentry will take the reproof in good part, and follow the lesson of the preacher, the lower classes will adopt their example, and good old times will return.

Art. 26. Preached in Boston (America), April 5, 1810, the Day of the Public Fast. By William Ellary Channing, Pastor of the Church in Federal Street. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1811.

No Briton can view the aggressions and atrocities of Bonaparte with more indignation than is expressed by this American preacher; nor be more strenuous in raising the alarm against his daring and sanguinary strides to universal empire. This sermon, which was originally printed in America, is very considerately reprinted in London, since it cannot fail of interesting the English reader. We know not whether Mr. Channing be a native of this island or a Columbian by birth: but he is certainly partial to Old England, and well appreciates the moral worth of the *middle class* of its inhabitants. By his cordial detestation of the French Emperor, he is intitled to the appellation of "a good hater;" while by the alarm at the system of French politics which is here sounded, he appears to be a lover of

America, and of the whole civilized world. 'We want,' says he, 'to have a general impression made of the character, spirit, design, power, and acts of France! of the unparalleled wretchedness, the political, moral, and religious debasement, attendant on union with her, or a subjection to her power.'

Mr. C. does not think that America is safe, though the Atlantic rolls between it and France; and he deprecates an alliance with its treacherous and sanguinary ruler.

Art. 27. Occasioned by the Death of Mrs. Trimmer; preached at New Brentford, Middlesex, on Jan. 6, 1811, by the Rev. Thomas Tunstall Haverfield, A. M., Fellow of Corpus Christi College, Oxford. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

By the piety and virtues of her private life, and by the extensive utility of her publications, Mrs. Trimmer attracted universal respect. Few persons in a similar station were more intitled to eulogy for goodness of intention and perseverance of effort; and the preacher of this discourse has endeavoured to do justice to her memory, while he holds her up as an example to the female world. The memoir is not complete; since we are not even informed when and where this respectable woman was born: but perhaps this and other circumstances are omitted, because some more detailed account of her and her writings is intended for the press. The preface, however, relates the happy sudden death by which Mrs. T. was removed from this scene of mortality: 'while sitting in her chair, perusing the letters of a deceased friend, she sank as it were into a tranquil slumber; and so peaceful was her end, that the moment when the soul was separated from the body could not be exactly ascertained.' This event took place December 15, 1810.

Art. 28. *Obedience the Path to religious Knowledge:* preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, Jan. 28, 1810. By Daniel Wilson, M.A., Vice-Principal of St. Edmund-Hall, Oxford, &c. 8vo. pp. 63. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

That vice is not less the source of error than of misery, and that virtue has a peculiar tendency to prepare the mind for the reception of truth, are doctrines which no man of sense and experience will be disposed to controvert. Between evil deeds, and evil principles, also, a very close intimacy subsists, which is in nothing more evident than in the reluctance of bad men to acquire religious knowlege. It is somewhere remarked that a man must have some virtue, who seriously sets himself down to study Seneca or Epictetus; and we may add to the observation that no person who is not well disposed can contemplate with satisfaction the far superior purity and spirituality of Christian morals. It is a maxim worthy of inculcation, and immediately flowing from the text which Mr. Wilson has chosen, (John vii. 17.) that 'a right disposition of heart is essential to the attainment of every just sentiment in religion;' and that talents and literature, however valuable in themselves, cannot compensate for the want of a right disposition of heart. Thus far we agree with the preacher; but in the application of this doctrine we cannot accompany

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
SIXTY-FOURTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Système Universel; i.e.* An Universal System. By H. Azaïs. 8vo. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Conchy. Price 6s.

Système Universel, &c. By H. Azaïs. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Conchy. Price 18s.

The very idea of a new system of physical philosophy, professing to reduce all the phænomena round us to one general operation, which, by acting according to established laws, necessarily produces the variety of appearances that we every where behold, almost certainly implies in the proposer the existence of a lively imagination, and some degree of original genius; and though we may be unavoidably led to predict the failure of the attempt, we may reasonably expect a share of interest or amusement in tracing the conceptions of such a mind, in observing how far it is guided by correct deductions, and in discovering at what point it deviates from the strict principles of philosophy. — Although the volumes before us bear similar titles, they are distinct publications, and yet they may be properly considered under one article, because they are intimately connected together; the first and smaller being an attempt to form a general principle or system, while the object of the other is to illustrate and develope that system by a survey of the different operations of nature,

M. Azaïs commences by remarking that all bodies are composed of particles more minute than those which present themselves to our senses, and that a perpetual revolution is going forwards among these particles; some of them disuniting themselves from the bodies to which they were previously attached, and others, on the contrary, entering into new combinations. We may therefore say, in general terms, that nature possesses both a power of decomposition and a power of composition: which two powers are always in action, and are both reciprocal and equal; for if it were not so, the particles of which the universe is composed must be growing progressively more or less closely united, according as the composing or the decomposing power exerted the greater energy. It is, however, probable that this is not the case, but that, on the average, their effects are equally balanced. M. Azaïs supposes that these powers are not inherent in matter, but something superinduced on it by an extraneous cause; since, if they were necessarily inherent, each particle must be acting in both ways at every instant of time, the result of which would be no external change at all, because the effect of the one would be precisely counteracted by the other. These powers are not then inherent in matter, or that without which matter cannot be conceived to exist, but they are given to it by means of an external impulse: for the author argues that all the changes which we perceive being the result of motion, and motion being always generated by impulse, every change which takes place in nature may be referred to impulse. He next endeavours to prove that these two powers, of composition and of decomposition, act as it were in turns; every change in the one necessarily producing a change in the other; and that to this is owing the incessant revolution which we observe in all natural phænomena. It then becomes an important point in a system of causation to determine which of these powers is the primary agent, or which of them must be considered as the cause of the other. To establish this essential part of his doctrine, the author argues in the following manner:

'All the great bodies of which the universe is composed are in a state of rotatory motion. This motion is their universal state. The dissolving power is then constantly applied to all parts of the universe, and yet the universe is preserved! Considered in its whole, it is immutable.—All astronomical phænomena demonstrate that the same quantity of matter always belongs to each of the great bodies, the movements of which we are able to observe. Is it the dissolving power which preserves the universe? We cannot doubt that it is. This power indeed is necessarily unique, since it is universal and constant. The composing or preserving power is only a dependent or secondary effect of the power of dissolution, and this second effect constantly balances the previous results of its cause.'

This statement is to be regarded as the chief foundation of the new system, the key to all the mysteries of nature.

We must now follow the author into a detail of his proofs of the primary action of the decomposing power, and the explanation which he gives of its mode of operation. The sun and stars have light perpetually emanating from them: but light is material, and cannot be moved without an impulse given to it; and since this motion tends to separate it from a body with which it was previously united, it must be influenced by 'the dissolving impulse.' Now since it is a fundamental law in mechanics, "that every body in motion produces motion in the body which it meets," it will follow that the light which thus radiates from the stars would set other bodies in motion, and drive them to a greater distance from the source of radiation, were not the effect of each sun or star exactly balanced by the effect of all the rest. Each star, at the same time that it is a focus of light which acts on all the surrounding bodies, is reciprocally influenced by them, and thus the whole universe is retained in its due order. From this fact, the author takes occasion to infer the infinity of the universe; because, if it were not infinite, there must be a part in which the impulse of light, moving in one direction, would not be counteracted by an opposite impulse. The infinity of the universe is likewise proved by the circumstance of the stars never failing in their splendor; they are perpetually emitting light in immense quantities: but they are also constantly receiving it again from the surrounding stars in the same proportion: so that the quantity of light which they contain remains unchanged.

Our readers will already have conjectured that this emission of light is supposed by M. Azaïs to be the prime agent in the production of all physical phænomena. It is by this operation of the decomposing power that all motion originates; that bodies are urged to each other, when existing in large masses, exhibiting the effects of gravitation; and that the particles of bodies are united together, according to what is usually styled *affinity*. Light is the mechanical cause of all the effects which are usually attributed to these powers. It appears, therefore, that the author considers the composing power, or that force by which the particles of bodies are held together, as nothing more than a secondary effect of the decomposing or dissolving power, which operates primarily by the emission of light from the stars. This he explains by imagining that the impulse which light possesses, when it meets with any opposing particles

of

of matter, must necessarily force them into contact, and oblige them to occupy the smallest space possible; that is, to arrange themselves into the spherical form.

> 'It is thus that the *stellary emission*, by constantly traversing space in all directions, and by incessantly tending to distribute itself in an uniform manner, becomes the immediate cause of the composing impulse. Now we have seen that the *stellary emission* is itself immediately produced by the dissolving impulse applied to the stars. The composing impulse is then, as we have said, nothing more than the secondary effect of their dissolving impulse; this primordial impulse makes use of the result of its first action to balance this action in an exact and constant manner; and the two impulses, opposed and equal, which produce all the secondary effects, proceed from the same origin. Absolute unity and perfect simplicity reign in the universe.'

Having laid down the basis of his system, M. Azaïs proceeds to the application of it to the phænomena of gravitation and affinity; or, as he styles them, of central gravitation and molecular gravitation. Gravitation in its two forms may be considered as constituting the composing power, but is, of course, to be ultimately referred to the decomposing or dissolving influence; being only a 'secondary effect, produced by the primary effect, which is the emission of light.' The impulse of light is not capable of effecting the rotatory motion of the heavenly bodies, because, since it is uniformly distributed through space, it must be uniformly applied to them. In order that a star should revolve from the impulse of the surrounding stars, it would be necessary that the star should receive this impulse on one of its faces with more force than on the opposite side; and it would consequently be necessary that light, which constantly traverses space in all directions, should be irregularly distributed through it:—but were this the case, the planets would not possess that regularity in their revolutions, which every observation that has been made would induce us to attribute to them. 'Thus the impulse which causes the great bodies to revolve on themselves is absolutely primordial; it is by this that the organization of the universe has commenced; it is by this that it is maintained. Let this impulse stop, and the dissolving power no longer exists; the great bodies no longer revolve; the composing power is equally annihilated; and the light, falling from all parts on immovable bodies, loses all its motion by the opposition of the motions. Every thing is stopped. Matter still remains, but useless, dead; the universe is as if it were not.'

These statements and extracts will probably enable the reader to form some idea of the merits of this writer's 'Universal System.' We deem it unnecessary to enter on the particular objections which might be urged against many parts of his reasoning, because we apprehend that few persons will regard the work in any other light than as an effort of the imagination, perhaps ingenious and amusing, but not endowed with such solidity as will render it able to resist the attacks of sound argumentation.

We shall now endeavour to give some account of the second publication, in which the principles of the 'Universal System' are applied to the explanation of the different branches of philosophy. This work is divided into four parts, corresponding with four classes, into which the author distributes all the beings of which the universe is composed. 'The first comprehends the application of the universal cause to the formation and motions of unorganized beings, (Physics.) The second comprehends the application of the universal cause to the formation and motions of the great bodies which occupy the infinity of space, (Cosmogony, Astronomy, and Geology.) The third part comprehends the application of the universal cause to the formation and motions of organized beings, (Physiology of vegetables, of animals, and of man.) The fourth part comprehends the application of the universal cause to the formation and motions of ideas, (Ideology.)' Of these divisions, we are in possession of only the first and the second.—According to our usual custom in reviewing works of this description, we shall rather aim at giving a full and minute detail of particular parts, than attempt a general account of the whole, which would necessarily be very superficial.

The first chapter treats on the atmosphere, and the first section is intitled 'General ideas of the atmosphere.'—The atmosphere is defined to be 'a continuous mass of light substances, which surrounds the surface of the earth, and reposes immediately on it.' This mass chiefly consists of gaseous fluids; and through these are dispersed, in variable quantities, aqueous vapours and different exhalations which proceed from bodies on the earth. Those which may be considered as the essential parts of the atmosphere are, however, uniformly the same; namely the oxygen and azotic gases, which are always found nearly in the same proportion; the azote being, as the author says, 'almost three times more abundant than the oxygen.'

'As these two gases, the oxygen especially, enter into combination with a great number of bodies deposited on the surface of the earth, and as, notwithstanding, their respective quantities remain always the same, it is necessary that they should be perpetually renewed by expansion, and that one or more substances deposited on the surface of the earth must perpetually tend to be converted by expansion into the atmospherical gases; this conversion must continually operate; consequently, these same substances, the constant sources of the atmospherical gases, must be themselves constantly renewed; and the measure of their renewal must be exactly the same with that of the atmosphere. An equilibrium of this kind leads us to suppose that, while on one part a certain quantity of terrestrial substance is converted by expansion into the atmospherical gases, the same quantity of these gases is brought back by compression to the earth, and enters into its primitive state, which it will again leave in consequence of the action of expansion.'

Our readers must be aware that this alternate process of compression and expansion, by which the atmosphere is deprived of its aeriform state, and again rendered gaseous, without experiencing any decomposition, is not only an hypothesis different from that which is commonly maintained on this subject, but appears quite inconsistent with the modern discoveries in chemistry. Let us see, then, how M. Azaïs supports his new doctrine.

'It is easy to find, (he says,) at the surface of the earth, constant sources of the atmospherical gases; and we must in the first place bear in mind that fluidity is intermediate between solidity and the aeriform state. It can therefore be nothing but a fluid which immediately furnishes the composition of the atmospherical gases; and it is necessary that this fluid be in great abundance on the surface of the earth; because the atmosphere is very extensive, and it constantly loses a great part of its mass: animals, vegetables, and minerals perpetually absorb it. These same considerations demonstrate to us that the terrestrial fluid, the constant source of the atmospherical gases, ought to manifest in a very perceptible manner that it is habitually subject to great dissipation. By these marks, we cannot avoid recognizing the only terrestrial body which, diffused very abundantly over the surface of the earth, shews itself there in great liquid masses, loses nothing of its general quantity, and yet is perpetually evaporated. Thus the reasoning, which we have just been pursuing, will be sufficient to demonstrate that water is the source of atmospherical air, and that in its turn the atmospherical air is the source of the water which must reproduce it.'

Though the author conceives that he has adequately proved this point by deductions from general principles; yet he proposes to confirm it by individual facts; for which he refers us to his observations on the formation of clouds, on the congelation of water, and especially on the decomposition of water by the Galvanic processes. As it may be interesting to have a complete view of the new hypothesis, we shall follow him to the section which treats on Galvanism, and particularly to that in which he offers his 'new considerations on the nature of water, as well as of oxygenous gas, hydrogenous gas, and the atmospherical gases.'

He begins by observing that in the Voltaic apparatus, or, as he calls it, the electrometer, the hydrogen is formed by the *greater fluid*, since it is accumulated at the negative pole of the column; and the oxygen by the *less fluid*, since it appears at the positive pole. Here we must refer to an hypothesis which is brought forwards in a preceding chapter, respecting the nature of the electric fluid, and of the two species of it which are manifested in our experiments, formerly called the vitreous and the resinous, and now usually denominated the positive and negative electricities. The electric state of bodies M. Azaïs attributes to globules of caloric which move within them; and he supposes that, according to the subtilty of these globules, and to the form and number of the pores of the electrified bodies, electricity is emitted in the one or the other of the two forms; the one he calls *the greater caloric* or *the greater fluid*; the other *the less caloric*, or *the less fluid.* (*Calorique majeur, fluide majeur; Calorique mineur, fluide mineur.*) He conceives that the component parts of hydrogen are more subtile than those of oxygen, and that a certain quantity of the former has less mass than the same quantity of the latter. The mass of gaseous bodies is not, however, to be measured by balances, like that of solids, because 'solids are essentially in a falling state, (*état de chute*); and gases are essentially in an ascending state, (*état ascensionnal.*)' With respect to the experiments of Cavendish and *Lavoisier*, it is supposed that they do not prove in a direct manner the composition of water, but only shew that, when water is divided by certain processes, hydrogen and oxygen are obtained in its place. Each of these gases is a compound of caloric and some other substance: but this substance, the radical of the gas, has never yet been obtained in a separate state, so as to ascertain its nature. Before we can prove that these radicals are different, we must prove that the caloric which is united to them is the same. Now the author thinks that it is not so, but that in one it is the *greater caloric*, and in the other the *less caloric*, which enters into the gases. If, however, we admit the caloric to be different, we may perhaps be able to account for the variation between the two species of gas, without supposing any difference in the nature of the radical; and this is what M. Azaïs attempts to establish. Oxygen, which is supposed to be formed of the *less fluid*, is less refractive, more easily parts with its caloric, occupies more space in proportion to its actual quantity, and is less capable of uniting with additional doses of caloric. Now these four properties are all indicative of the presence of the *less fluid*, as the contrary properties are of the *greater fluid*. Hence it follows, according to the hypothesis of the author, that water is a simple substance; that when it is united to the *less fluid* it becomes oxygen, and when to the *greater* it becomes hydrogen. Having achieved the first part of the process, the rest is comparatively easy. By certain modifications of these two kinds of caloric, and by the proper disposition of the aqueous particles, the atmospherical air is produced. It is true that we stumble on a momentous difficulty at the very threshold, but this only affords the greater scope for the author's genius. In the atmosphere, we have no hydrogen, but a very large quantity of azote; what, then, becomes of the hydrogen, and whence is the azote derived? M. Azaïs replies to these questions in the following manner:

> 'Azotic gas is no more than a transitory compound; it is water in an intermediate state between liquid water and azotic gas; it is gaseous water deprived of a certain quantity of oxygenous gas, already emitted from its bosom, and united in vapours or absorbed by terrestrial bodies. The azotic gas, the immediate produce of the evaporation of water, and at first necessary for this evaporation, comprizing all the elements of water, must necessarily be always in greater quantity in the atmosphere; oxygenous gas formed from the molecules in the last term of their division, and for this reason annihilating itself always in proportion as it is formed, can never exist but in a small quantity in the atmosphere.'

After this specimen of the writer's talent for hypothesis, we may confidently set him down as one of those geniuses who, when they have a favourite object in pursuit, are not stopped by trifling obstacles, but will outstrip the conceptions of the sober inquirer after truth, who proceeds according to the slow method of experiment and induction. On the subject of the atmosphere, and on the nature of water, we apprehend that our readers will have received as much information as they will be able to digest.

We will now take a specimen from the second part, that which treats of Astronomy and Geology. In the chapter on geology, the first section relates to 'the bulging (*renflement*) of the equator, and the establishment of primitive mountains.' The terrestrial globe is supposed to have been formed of fragments thrown from the sun, reduced by heat to a state of semifluidity. As soon, however, as it left the solar atmosphere, the power of compression began to act, and reduced it to the solid form: but this force, necessarily acting less powerfully in the equinoctial regions, gave to the globe the figure of a spheroid slightly flattened. While, however, the poles were thus consolidated, what, asks the author, became of the heat and light which naturally belonged to their substance? He supposes that they were detained by the '*envelopper*' of the polar regions, and were thus driven towards the centre of the earth. The compressive force still continues to repel this heat and light from the poles, until it finds a vent at the equator; when the expansive force causes it to issue forth. In its efforts to escape, it forms mountains, which will in course be few near the poles, and most numerous and considerable in the countries under the equator.

> 'Such is the primitive and immediate cause of the composition of mountains. These great bodies, always disposed in lines more or less lengthened out, are, in their original nucleus, nothing more than wrinkles, produced by the expansive exuberance. These wrinkles must be formed in various directions, since the expansive exuberance, striking from below on all points of the congealed crust, but not finding every where the same resistance because this crust is formed of heterogeneous materials, determined the elevation in the weakest parts; those parts, of which the elements had not been susceptible of a congelation so rapid nor so powerful. But the expansive substances all making an effort to pass towards the equator, it is in the direction of the poles of the equator that the principal projecting bodies must be traced.'

The author then endeavours to apply his hypothesis to account for the actual state of the mountains which exist on the surface of the earth. Their appearances do not indeed seem to agree with the hypothesis: but, after what he has seen, the reader will be prepared to expect that M. Azaïs will easily extricate himself from his difficulties; which, in fact, he accomplishes with as much ingenuity as on former occasions.

We do not consider it as necessary to fill any more of our pages with extracts from this 'Universal System.' We may admit that the author possesses a lively imagination, and an extensive range of information on subjects connected with natural philosophy: but his mind appears to be so completely absorbed by his own speculations, and he is so entirely unfettered by all the restraints which might be imposed on him by the experiments or opinions of others, that we must decidedly degrade his performance from the rank of a scientific treatise to that of an amusing philosophical romance.

Art. II. *Musée des Monumens*, &c. ; *i. e.* The Museum of French Monuments, or an historical and chronological Description of the Marble and Bronze Statues, Bas-reliefs, and Tombs of celebrated Men and Women, illustrative of a History of France and of the Arts. With a Dissertation on the Costume of each Century, an alphabetical and analytical Table of Contents, and a Number of Engravings. By **Alexander Lenoir**, Administrator of the Museum of French Monuments, &c. &c. Vol. V. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 10s.

When in our xlist volume (N. S.) p. 512, we noticed Mr. Griffiths's translation of the first volume of this interesting and amusing work, we hoped for the pleasure of being soon able to gratify ourselves and our readers by an account of the subsequent portions : but such are the interruptions which even literature receives from the singular warfare in which our country is involved, that we have been unable to procure a regular series either of Mr. G.'s translation or of M. Lenoir's original production ; and we are forced, after much time lost in fruitless expectation, to content ourselves with the 5th and last volume of the *Musée des Monumens*.—It is probably in the recollection of our readers that M. Lenoir, with great zeal and personal risk, opposed himself to those furies who, at one period of the French revolution, vented their blind rage on the tombs of the illustrious dead, particularly of their kings, and on the most precious vestiges of the arts. In endeavouring to defend the beautiful monument erected to the memory of Cardinal *Richelieu*, executed after a design by *Le Brun*, M. Lenoir received a wound in his hand from the bayonet of a soldier of the revolutionary army, of which he tells us that he still bears the mark. Though he could not preserve the face of the statue from violence, it is a circumstance consolatory to the fine arts that the mutilations have been restored ; and that M. Lenoir, notwithstanding all his perils, has been preserved to complete the plan which he had formed, of arranging, in a distinct Museum, and in chronological order, the monuments which in different ages and places have been erected to the memory of the most celebrated persons to whom France has given birth. The view of this museum of tombs, statues, and bas-reliefs, and of the *Elysée*, or Elysium, in which are placed the monuments containing the remains or bearing the names of the characters most deserving of renown in the French annals, must be solemn and impressive ; though it appears to us that the objects are too crowded, and that the *Elysée* is too limited in extent for the production of that grand and awful effect which a scene so charged and decorated is calculated to inspire. We take it for granted that the enthusiasm of the Director of the Museum, guided by a warm yet cultivated taste, has effected as much as the capabilities of the place would admit; and that, in the collocation of the statues, busts, bas-reliefs, &c. he has satisfied the French public. In the work which is descriptive of his Museum, he has spared no pains; and this last volume presents us with an account of those vestiges of art which belong to the 17th and 18th centuries, interspersed with anecdotes of the individuals to whom they are respectively appropriated.

An introduction of some length discusses the state of the arts in the above-mentioned periods, and also affords a short sketch of costume during the reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. The splendid æra of the former makes no figure in the pages of M. Lenoir; who, as an artist, speaks with more rapture of the 16th, than of the 17th and 18th centuries. The *morceaux précieux* of the *beau siècle* of Francis I. are recollected with pleasure: but, as the writer descends, he finds less to praise, and exhorts students to forget the pernicious system which was introduced into the arts dependent on design towards the conclusion of the 17th century. Academies are the objects of his censure; and he quotes with approbation the assertion of *Voltaire* that "a fatality attends them, and that no work of any kind called *academic* has been a work of genius." Some English artists at the present day will probably join in this sentiment; and the existing state of our Royal Academy will be adduced to prove that corporate bodies, however patronized, are not so propitious to true genius as some persons have imagined. "Shew me," said M. *Voltaire*, "an artist who is overwhelmed with fear lest he should not catch the manner of his associates; his productions will be stiff and constrained. Shew me a man of a bold and free spirit, full of that nature which he copies; he will succeed." *Colbert*, though flattered with the title of the Mecœnas of France, did not accomplish his objects, by the employment of all his resources for the prosperity of polite literature and the fine arts. The luxury and magnificence of Louis XIVth, and the profusion of his nobles, served rather to corrupt than to improve the arts; and their decline will be apparent, says M. Lenoir, on an examination of the monuments which belong to this epoch, and by a comparison of them with those of the preceding period:

'The preponderance which *Simon Vouet* had obtained in the arts, about the beginning of the 17th century, necessarily occasioned their declension. This painter, possessed of a wild and impetuous imagination, and incapable of conquering the feeling of impatience that was natural to him, never learnt to restrain himself sufficiently to correct the forms of his designs, to purify his taste, and to perfect his style. He introduced into his school a dashing kind of painting, so easy and well understood, that the largest pictures might be executed with a stroke of the pencil, without consulting nature. This expeditious manner, which obtained much *éclat* for the picture, generally pleased; and it was seized with so much the more enthusiasm by the pupils of *Vouet*, because it flattered their idleness, and removed many difficulties in the art. We know that *Eustace Lesueur* and *Charles Le Brun* did not relinquish their master's manner of painting, till they were entirely left to themselves; and many others of his *élèves*, *Poerson*, *Perrier*, &c. kept steady to the principles of *Vouet*. The total abandonment of ideal beauty and of the study of nature became *the mode* in the arts of design; in spite of the lessons which *Leonardo da Vinci* had deposited in the bosom of his academies. *Lesueur* died young, and the great *Poussin*, contrasted with *Vouet*, then appeared like a torch to rekindle the sacred fire of the arts: but he was repulsed. *Poussin*, by his scientific productions, has proved that conception forms the great merit of a picture; and that the painter ought to draw all his resources from the mind, if he would delineate the passions of men so as to obtain the suffrages of all, and establish by anticipation his own immortality. This great man has shewn that the artist who would represent the different characters of nature, and express himself with truth, ought, if I may be allowed the phrase, to identify himself with the power of the Deity, and penetrate, with a piercing eye, into the very thoughts of the personages whom he would put into action. The dialogues which *Nicolas Poussin* has represented on canvas may be compared, for natural energy, to the arguments of the great *Corneille*; yet this philosophical painter, irritated by the jealousy and intrigues of his contemporaries, and yielding to the prevailing party, removed to a foreign country, and by his flight contributed to the total ruin of the French school. Who are the painters of the celebrated age of Louis XIV. that we can name in comparison with *Eustace Lesueur* and *Nicolas Poussin*? Shall we quote *Peter Mignard*, or *Bon-Boulogne*, whose insignificant compositions speak not to the soul? Shall we admit *Coypel*, whose monotonous pictures exhibit only affected pedantry, and tame execution? Shall we speak of *John Jouvenet* and *Charles De la Fosse*? The consequence which we have given to these painters by placing them near Titian, Paul Veronese, and Rubens, demands from us a word or two on their productions. If I now examine the talent of *Jouvenet* in relation to design, I perceive in him no study of nature, no correctness in the naked figures, no grandeur in the flow of drapery: if moreover, I enter into details on his pictures as those of a colourist, I search in vain for the skillful and rich demi-tints of *Titian*, who had so much the art of managing them, that he softened off his outline in a manner that rivalled nature. I perceive not the brilliant effects of light displayed by *Paul Veronese*, whose pencil produces illusion, without being forced in his colours, and who knew how to employ art to conceal art. I do not moreover perceive in *Jouvenet* the strong and vigorously expressed colouring of *Rubens*.'

Thus contemptuously does M. Lenoir speak of the French school in the 17th century; and his remarks, as being calculated to produce a more correct taste, ought to engage the serious consideration of all artists. Even the productions of *Le Brun* are keenly criticized, and the defects of his style are minutely specified. *Lesueur* and *Poussin* are the most brilliant stars of the period to which they belong: but their example, as we find, was not sufficient to prevent the prevalence of that bad taste, which caused the arts to retrograde in the æras of Louis XIV. and XV.—In mentioning the works of the statuary and the architect, M. LENOIR finds little that is intitled to high applause which belongs to this period. That the errors which are attributed to the school of *Vouet* may be corrected, students are exhorted to forget those men who in the 17th century conspired against the progress of the arts; to rally round *David* and *Vincent*, the celebrated pupils of *Vien*, whose school has established in France the *fourth epoch* of the restoration of the fine arts; and in the 19th century to revive the happy times of Greece, of Francis I., and of the Medici. Whether M. LENOIR's advice will be followed, time must shew: but the penetrating mind and sound judgment, which his criticisms display, are certainly favourable to the diffusion of good taste among the present members of the French school.

Towards the conclusion of the introduction, we are presented with a section on the *Beard*, as it was worn in the reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV.; and on the dresses of both men and women then in vogue. We find that the monarchs of France set the fashion to their subjects, and that the usages of the court gave the law respecting *costume* to the people. Francis I., wishing to hide a scar in his face which was occasioned by a burn, suffered his beard to grow, and consequently during his reign long beards were *the rage*; or, as this writer expresses it, '*La barbe fut reprise avec fureur*:' but when Louis XIV. came to the throne, his courtiers shaved close, in imitation of the smooth chin of their young monarch. About the year 1630, perukes were introduced, which were at first made with a small quantity of hair: but to these succeeded those enormous wigs which obtained the appellation of *folios*, the curls of which covered the shoulders, while the toupee rose nearly a foot high. This ridiculous taste was so eagerly followed, that gentlemen made the peruke the principal ornament of their dress, and ran into such extravagance respecting it, that a beautiful flaxen peruke *in folio* (for flaxen was the favourite colour) cost a thousand crowns! To the flaxen succeeded the white peruke, which was adopted in imitation of the grey locks of Louis XIV. when he grew old; powder was then invented, which followed the [illegible] of flaxen and white perukes. As a companion to the [illegible] *in folio*, an attempt was made to introduce breeches *in folio*: but this fashion did not prevail.

The notices concerning the clothes of gentlemen are equally curious: but we shall omit the detail of them in order to insert an anecdote taken from a MS. of the President *Mesnieres*, which shews that, while the French ladies at that time were indebted to two English ladies for a deliverance from the enormous head-dresses which encumbered the top of their figure, they were led by similar imitation to burden themselves below with monstrous hoops:

(P. 39.) 'Two English ladies visited France in the year 1714. They went to Versailles in the month of June or July, and wishing to see Louis XIV. sup, presented themselves when he was at table. The persons who were at supper with him, struck at beholding the smallness of the head-dresses of these ladies, (which in no respect resembled those of the French beauties,) and ignorant that they were strangers, made so loud a clapping, that the king demanded the cause of the noise; they replied that it was occasioned by two ladies, *coiffed* in an extraordinary manner, who had come to have the honour of seeing him sup; for at this moment the spectators had not observed their hoops. The king perceiving that the ladies were handsome and well made, ordered them to approach him, and said to all his suite, in the presence of the duchesses and ladies who were with him at supper, that if all women were rational they would dress their heads according to the example of these two ladies; speaking also in a tone which conveyed an idea that, if they dressed otherwise, they would not make their court to him. It is easy to guess what was the conduct of the ladies who formed the king's party. They worked all night to reduce their *coiffures*, which were excessively high. Next day, the ladies in their new head-dresses presented themselves at mass with the king, where with difficulty they preserved a serious countenance: but on coming from mass, the king complimented them by saying that they had never been better *coiffed*. This was enough to bring this new mode into fashion with the ladies of the court; the city followed the example; and all the *cornettes*[*] of the women changed in course.'

Two days after the visit to Versailles, the English ladies, parading the promenade of the Thuilleries in their enormous hoops, drew such a crowd round them, that they escaped with difficulty from the mob! Yet this adventure led to the introduction of the large hoop. Since that period, the French costume has experienced various changes:

'At the present day (concludes M. LENOIR,) our women, directed by a naturally fine taste, and by the artists, rationally seek, in the modes which they adopt, the form of the dresses of the Greek females, as exhibited on antique statues. During the course of the Revolution, the most intelligent painters endeavoured to change the French costume. Then, persons belonging to the Government unanimously adopted a more rational and better composed costume than the dresses in fashion : but this was abandoned as soon as invented, not because it was new, and was not suited to the nation, but from a spirit of party.'

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[*] A name given to parts of the towering toupees of the ladies.

We come now to the body of the work. Among the monuments illustrative of the state of the arts in the 17th century, which M. LENOIR has described, and of which occasionally representations are given in the plates that embellish the volume, we find those of most of the great men who have conferred celebrity on those days. In the hall appropriated to this æra, the statue of Louis XIV. presents itself, surrounded with the busts of his Generals *Turenne* and *Condé*, and with those of the statesmen *Richelieu*, *Mazarin*, and *Colbert*. The tombs and memorials of the illustrious dead, arranged in this department of the Museum, are those of *Mansard* ; of *De Thou* ; of Cardinal *Richelieu* ; of Cardinal *de la Rochefoucault* ; of *Descartes* ; of the Duke *de Rohan* ; of Cardinal *Mazarin* ; of *Casimir* V., King of Poland ; of *Charles Lebrun* ; of *Colbert* ; of M. *de Louvois* ; of *Lulli* ; of the Prince *de Conti*, &c.

The department allotted to the 18th century contains marbles, bronzes, &c. to the memory of *Dubois* the Archbishop of Cambray ; of *Languet de Gergy*, curé of St. Sulpice ; of *Henry Claude*, Count d'Harcourt ; of *Maupertuis* ; of *Crebillon* ; of *Peter Mignard* ; of *Coïzevox* ; of *Winckelmann* ; of *Cherin* of *Winslow* ; of *Montesquieu* ; of *John-Germain Drouais*, a young painter of great promise, who died of a fever at Rome, Feb. 13. 1788, at the age of 24 ; of *Voltaire*, &c.

The accounts of these monuments include many anecdotes and epitaphs, which we should willingly transcribe, had we not already exceeded the limits which we proposed to ourselves. We will, however, find room for the French epitaph on *Descartes*, omitting the long Latin inscription :

> " DESCARTES, *dont tu vois ici la sepulture,*
> *A décillé les yeux des aveugles mortels ;*
> *Et gardant le respect que l'on doit aux autels,*
> *Leur a du monde entier montré la structure.*
> *Son nom par mille écrits se rendit glorieux ;*
> *Son esprit mesurant et la terre et les cieux*
> *En pénétra l'abime, en perça les nuages ;*
> *Cependant comme un autre il cède aux lois du sort,*
> *Lui qui vivroit autant que ses divins ouvrages,*
> *Si le sage pouvoit s'affranchir de la mort.*"

As a contrast to the sounding eulogies which generally decorate funereal marbles, we are presented with an epitaph at

Art. III. *Mémoires du Prince* Eugene; &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of Prince Eugene of Savoy, written by himself.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

The tactics of Prince Eugene often manifested a degree of enterprize bordering on rashness, which he takes no pains to conceal. In the glorious battle described in the last of our former extracts, boldness, even with inferior numbers, was good Generalship, because the French were evidently ill commanded; and under such circumstances, offensive measures entered also into the less daring tactics of Marlborough. Louis, however, taught at last by misfortune, committed the charge of his armies to men who were worthy of opposing the allied commanders; and, though neither their talents nor the number of their troops could give a turn to the tide of fortune, they obliged the confederates to purchase their farther successes with torrents of blood. After this change of Generals, the adoption of offensive hostilities originated chiefly with Prince Eugene, which was the case at the siege of Lisle, as well as at the battle of Malplaquet, both of which afforded a melancholy evidence of the waste of lives that is attendant on the acquisition of military honours.

'*Siege of Lisle.* After the French army had retreated from the neighbourhood of Marlborough's camp, I continued the siege, secure from interruption, and took the redoubt of the gate of Flanders as well as some others: but, after having fought three hours for one of the most essential, I was beaten back, and pursued all the way to my intrenchments. Soon afterward, I made two assaults to facilitate the getting possession of the covered way: but we were repulsed each time with dreadful carnage. Four thousand English, sent to me by Marlborough, performed wonders, but were routed, and we heard the voices of the French shouting, "Long live the King and Boufflers." I spoke a few words of English to the brave fellows who rallied around me, and led them back to battle: but a ball over the left eye threw me down, deprived of sense. My friends thought that I was dead; lifted me into a cart, and took me back to quarters, where I soon recovered, the ball having struck me only in an oblique direction. Here was another fruitless attack: of the five thousand English, only fifteen hundred survived; and twelve hundred workmen likewise were killed.

'*Battle of Malplaquet.* In 1709, the year after we had taken Lisle, each side mustered an army of one hundred thousand men in the Low Countries, the allies under Marlborough and me, the French under *Villars*: who, without seeking to avoid a battle, intrenched himself in an extremely advantageous position. This was one of his great talents; and indeed very little was wanting to constitute him a master in the art of war. With the reinforcements which successively reached us, our army became stronger than his, but we had no means of attacking him, posted as he was. To oblige him the Dutch troops were prostrate on the ground, either killed or wounded. The battle had lasted under Marlborough on our centre and left, during six hours, without any considerable advantage. My cavalry, which I sent to his aid, was attacked and dispersed on the road by the cavalry of the household troops; and they in their turn were treated not less roughly by a battery in flank. At last, Marlborough, without assistance from me, gained ground: and the French centre being exposed by the defeat of both wings, I turned it without difficulty. *Boufflers* did for *Villars* what I did for Marlborough; and when he saw *Villars* fall wounded from his horse, and the victory snatched from their hands, he bent his whole mind to accomplish his retreat in the finest order. I believe it is no exaggeration to put down the loss of the two armies at *forty thousand men;* in killed, wounded, and dead of fatigue. I made our surviving troops take some rest; and after having buried as many of the dead as we could, we advanced against Mons.

'Mons had only five thousand men in garrison. I opened the trenches on the 25th of September, and on the 22d of October, when we were ready to assault the horn-work, the Commandant capitulated. Our troops now took up their winter-quarters; and I, forced to travel on all occasions, repaired with Marlborough to the Hague, to coax the States, who were on the point of withdrawing from us. I urged them to insist, at the conferences of Gertruydenberg, that they would make none but a general peace:—a very good method this, to keep on war with a coalition; for out of four or five powers, *one* will generally be pacifically disposed. I made sure of Queen Anne, because I was sure of Marlborough, who seconded my views most cordially. I returned to Vienna, and explained the disposition of our allies to the Emperor's ministers, who were quite in the dark about it. People are bold at a distance; and they assured me at Vienna that my next would be a brilliant campaign. I answered that I had caused the fall of a greater number of soldiers than they could raise for me, but that I should do my best.'

Before we proceed to observations on the general character of these Memoirs, we must extract the passages which afford a sketch of the two leading sovereigns in Germany, the Emperor Joseph, and the King of Prussia, together with that in which Prince EUGENE gives an account of his mode of life towards the close of his career. Our readers will not fail to recollect that the Emperor's death had a powerful effect in removing the obstacles to peace; the Imperial diadem devolving by that event on his brother Charles, who was the candidate for the Spanish crown, and the powers confederated against Louis being as jealous of the junction of the Spanish dominions to Austria as of their union to France. The King of Prussia, Frederick William I., was chiefly remarkable as the author of that military force, with which his son was destined to shake the foundations of the Austrian power.

' *Joseph I.*—The Emperor was attacked (1711) with the small-pox; and Vienna possessing no good physicians, one was fetched from Lintz, and the pustules came out in such abundance that I thought that the danger was over. I left Vienna on the 16th April, and three days afterward was informed of his death, which took place from the ignorance of the Austrian faculty, who disputed a whole night on the method of curing an inflammation in the Emperor's bowels. I greatly regretted this prince, who was cut off at the early age of thirty-three, and was the first Austrian Emperor since the time of Charles V. who had any thing of a marked character, and was free from superstition.

' *The King of Prussia in* 1732.—His Prussian Majesty was waiting for us at Prague; and when I was just going to dress for the purpose of attending on him, he made his appearance in my room. " No ceremony," said he, " I am come to converse with my master." This was a Charles XII. in a state of peace: he thought of nothing besides military matters, but went no farther than parades, reviews, short coats, small hats, and tall men. I was obliged to listen to him on all these topics, on the fine condition of his troops, and on his economy. I addressed him on these points, and advised him to provide abundance both of men and money to defend us if we should be attacked; as my system was not to make war, but to raise a barrier against the French, in order to prevent their being induced to make war on us. Having been taught to prefer friends to allies, who are often troublesome, I merely made him pledge himself not to declare against us; which, knowing his avarice, I was afraid he might be tempted to do. I prevailed on the Emperor to descend a little from his Spanish stateliness, and give him a friendly reception. He made accordingly a grand and expensive feast for him. I also induced the Bohemian nobility to shew great attention to His Prussian Majesty; who would indeed have preferred a review to a ball, but that was not our *forte*. I had had enough of real war to be very indifferent about wheeling to right and left, and looking at the manual exercise. It was a pleasant contrast to see this *corporal of a king* by the side of our Emperor, who was dressed in a magnificent mantle of gold.

' *Prince Eugene in* 1734.—Hostilities having broken out with France, I went to the Rhine, and reviewed my army on the 27th of April, a few leagues from Philipsburg. I was then of the age of seventy-one, and I am still moved to tears of joy, of tenderness, and of gratitude, when I remember the repeated cries of " Long live our father," with which I was received, while thousands of hats waved in the air. My old soldiers of the campaigns of Hungary, Italy, Flanders, and Bavaria, ran to take hold of the knees of my boots; they surrounded me, they fastened on my horse, and even pulled me down with the weight of their caresses.—This was assuredly the most delightful moment of my life.

' Though greatly inferior in numbers, I prevented the Duke of Berwick from advancing into the heart of the country. He could do nothing but lay siege to Philipsburg; where he was killed by a cannon-ball eight days after he had opened the trenches. I envied him the manner of his death, and it was the first time in my life that I had been envious. — I afterward received several reinforcements of Hessians, Hanoverians, and Prussians, among whom I soon distinguished the prince royal *, who seemed to me to promise extremely well. — In the succeeding campaign, I finished my military career by operations of some activity, taking Trarbach, and delivering the electorate of Treves. On the negotiation for peace occurring, I was recalled to Vienna; for which I set out, convinced that this would be my last campaign. No words can express the grief that I suffered in taking leave of my army. It was, in truth, a sad scene. None but an old soldier can conceive how much it cost me to bid an eternal adieu to those brave men, whom I had so often led to deadly combat, and amid whom I longed to fall in the arms of victory; — the only blessing which Providence has denied me. I gave up the command to the Duke of Wirtemberg, with tears in my eyes.

'I am now nearly in complete retirement. I play every evening at piquet at Madame *Bathiany*'s: but it is merely for the sake of conversation, which seems to go on better when we do not set formally about it. I like the company of young people, whose minds are the purer for not having been spoiled by intrigue. — I have been happy in this life, and hope to be happy in the next. Old dragoons still live who will offer up their prayers for me, and I depend much more on their efficacy than on that of the prayers of the clergy, or the court-ladies. The music of divine service is pleasant to my ears. When simple, its solemnity strikes awe into the soul; and when louder, it brings to my recollection the trumpets and cymbals which have so often led my soldiers to victory. I have scarcely had time to commit transgression: but I have set a bad example, without thinking, by neglecting the exercises of religion, though a sincere believer in and well acquainted with its doctrines. I have sometimes spoken ill of others, calling this man a coward and that man a rogue: but it has always been on a conviction of the necessity of so doing. I have been sometimes carried away by passion: but who would not be so with a General or a regiment failing in the performance of their duty, or with an adjutant who does not understand his orders? I have led a soldier's life of indifference, and have acted the part of a philosopher: but my death I wish to be that of a Christian. I never liked boasters, either in war or religion; and it is probably from having seen on one side the ridiculous impiety of the French, and on the other the bigotry of the Spaniards, that I have observed a medium between the two. In former days, I had so often seen death before me, that I had become familiar with it: but this is not now the case. I then sought it: now I wait for it; but I await it with tranquillity, and look on the past as a pleasing dream. — I am fond of the eloquence of the pulpit. When *Bourdaloue* has made me fear every thing, *Massillon* makes me hope every thing. The latter was born in the same year with myself, and I knew him at his entrance into life, the most amiable of men; *Bossuet* astonishes and *Fenelon* affects me. Them also I saw in my youth; and Marlborough and I treated the latter with the greatest distinction when we took Cambray. — My memory is still good, and I believe I have forgotten nothing except my enemies at the court of Austria, whom I forgive with all my heart; — I was a stranger, and a successful one; — this was too much to escape their envy.'

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* Afterward the great Frederic.

These Memoirs, though not destitute of general views, contain less of them than might be expected from one who ranked among the most successful diplomatists, as well as among the ablest commanders of his day. Reflections, when occurring, are seldom introductory to the narrative of any particular event, but seem to arise spontaneously from it. After having described (page 59.) an obstinate action, in which the retention of a bridge was of great consequence to him, Prince EUGENE represents the French soldiers as not contented with following orders by merely making an attack in front, but as pushing into the water on the right and left to assail his men on both flanks. "Here," says he, "were valour, activity, and intelligence combined; and such are the qualities which mark the French soldier." — Although an inveterate enemy of France, and attached by the strongest ties to Austria, he is not backwards in acknowleging the great superiority of the resources of the former.

> ‘ The efforts (he says) made by France in 1713 were prodigious, because her resources were infinite. France consists of a single nation governed by a single individual; while the Austrian monarchy is composed of five or six different nations, with as many different constitutions. How great a disparity in the state of their culture, population, and credit! The title of Emperor is not productive of a single soldier nor of a single farthing of revenue. He must have recourse to negotiation on all points; with the Empire, to prevent it from joining the French; with the Bohemians, to keep them from taking refuge in Prussia and Saxony to avoid military service; with the Lombards, to prevent their becoming Savoyards; with the Hungarians, who might join the Turks; and with the Flemings, who are so nearly connected with the Dutch. — When *Villars* and I talked at Rastadt of the characters of the two nations, he remarked, "The Austrians seem to me immoveable; they act their part always more or less well, but never very ill." — "And your army," said I, "is by no means uniform; it has two characters: the one capable of discipline, fatigue, and enthusiasm, when it is led by a *Villars*, a *Vendome*, or a *Catinat*; the other, such as appeared at Blenheim and Ramillies, when the prevalence of court-intrigue is apparent in the direction of your affairs. The quickness of the French may be rendered hurtful to them at times, because they must needs draw an inference from every thing, and very rapidly too. For instance, were I your antagonist again, I would dress some of my dragoons in French uniforms, and send them to the rear of your troops, in the midst of an action, with directions to cry out, "We are cut off."

Like other commanders of a decisive character, Prince Eugene soon learned to renounce the planning of operations in a council of officers. This is the more remarkable in his case, because he is always ready to bestow encomiums on his assistants, and presents his reader (p. 143.) with a list of the most meritorious. The names of his best officers are generally French and Italian; one proof, among many others, how much Austria has owed to foreigners, and how few of her own natives have hitherto been educated in such a way as to become eminent either in war or diplomacy. Of all the names introduced into these memoirs, that of Marlborough is mentioned with the most steady attachment and regard; and the most affecting part of the book, to an English reader, is the short account given by the Prince of his visit to London in the end of 1711, after the associate of his laurels had lost the Queen's favour, and been stripped of his employments.

> 'Had I followed,' says the Prince, "the example of thorough-paced courtiers, I should have avoided seeing Marlborough, and have exclaimed against him more loudly than his enemies: but even little minds would do well to appear sometimes to be alive to feeling, since otherwise their conduct will in the end be too barefaced, and bring them into contempt. Gratitude, esteem, fellowship in so many military labours, and sympathy with my fallen friend, all concurred to make me throw myself, with unbounded affection, into the arms of Marlborough. On such occasions, the heart hurries one along The people, who followed me in crowds through London, perceived it, and loved me the more: even the opposition, and the honourable part of the courtiers, must have valued me more highly on that account: but I found it a vain task to endeavour to re-establish the Austrian influence. I danced attendance on the men in office; I made presents, for much may be done by such means in England; and I offered to procure the recall of our ambassador who had given offence: but nothing could be made to prove effectual.'

Our chief objection to these memoirs is the want of all acknowlegement of the reasonable terms of peace which France continued to offer every year after the campaign of 1706, but particularly at the conferences of Gertruydenberg. Prince Eugene never considers it as a duty to admit that Louis offered to give up all, and more than all, the points for which the confederacy had been formed; nor does he take any blame to himself for urging the indefinite continuance of the contest. We remarked, however, with pleasure, and we recommend it to the serious attention of the partisans of war, that even he, the most ardent of combatants in the early part of life, became in his advanced years the zealous advocate of peace. 'The thirst of renown,' he says, (p. 125.) 'sometimes insinuates itself into our councils under the hypocritical garb of national honour.

nour. It dwells on imaginary insults, it suggests harsh and abusive language, and people go on from one thing to another till they put an end to the lives of half a million of men.'—'The call for war,' he adds, (p.163.) 'proceeds generally from those who have no active share in its toils, as ministers, clergymen, women, and the lounging politicians of a large town. I said one day at Vienna (in 1733,) in a company which was very clamorous for war, "I wish that each of the great men and great ladies present was ordered by the Emperor to contribute at the rate of four thousand ducats a-head to the war-charges, and that the other fine gentlemen among us were made to take the field forthwith in person." In another passage, (p.180.) when relating one of his conferences with the Austrian minister, Count Zinzendorf, he says: 'a military man becomes so sick of bloody scenes in war, that in peace he is averse to recommence them. I wish that the first minister, who is called to decide on peace or war, had only seen actual service. What pains would he not take to seek, in mediation and compromise, the means of avoiding the effusion of so much blood!'—"It is ignorance, and levity, which is always cruel, (replied the Count,) that make cabinets lean to the side of war."—Well might such counsels proceed from one who acknowleges that he found himself, after ten years of victory, at the head only of *recruits!*

On the whole, the perusal, or rather the study, of this volume (for to be understood it requires to be read more than once,) has afforded us considerable satisfaction. It sets in a very clear light the activity, the enterprize, and the decision of the Prince's character:— but the extracts which we have made are calculated to convey rather too favourable an idea of its merits as a composition, since, being descriptions of known events, the abruptness of style is productive of less obscurity in these than in the relation of minor transactions.

As we have already stated, this book was first printed at Weimar in Saxony, and afterward went through two editions at Paris, the last of which has evidently been prepared under the eye of Government. We have long been taught to expect that a work breathing the spirit of freedom, like Mr. Fox's history, would infallibly undergo considerable mutilations at the Parisian press. The French plays, in particular, have of late years suffered, we understand, a retrenchment of all those passages which condemn usurpation and tyranny; and the prohibition of descanting on these popular and impressive topics has deterred men of spirit, for some time past, from bringing forwards new compositions on the stage. We could scarcely have thought, however, that Prince EUGENE's memoirs, relating to transactions a century old, and bearing little immediate reference to France, would have been considered as a fit subject for the display of Napoleon's censorship. Yet, on comparing the first and second Paris editions,(the latter of which has reached us since we commenced this article,) we find that the second has undergone considerable curtailments; and it is amusing to see how the consciousness of misconduct engenders suspicion of expressions, which would, in all probability, have escaped the notice of ordinary readers. One passage, (1st edition, p.34.) accusing sovereigns of resenting any thing in the shape of ridicule, is wholly omitted; and a similar fate has been adjudged to a paragraph (p.94, 1st edition,) in which the memory of Henry IV. is mentioned with respect, and military renown is said to be often acquired by opposing bad Generals. A third passage, (p.164.) descriptive of the English character, has been left out, for no reason which we can conceive, since its purport is rather to create an unfavourable impression towards us in the character of confederates with continental nations. We need, however, be at no loss to account for the exclusion of a paragraph at p.37. in which, after having violated the neutral territory of Venice, the Prince remarks that he did not fail to pour out protestations about the injurious nature of circumstances, the effects of misunderstanding, &c.; and, to conclude these examples of faithless editorship, we may mention a passage (p.82.) in which the Prince alludes to the notable circumstance of Louis XIV. having forsaken EUGENE's mother for another female:—this also, since the abandonment of the imperial Josephine, has been deemed a circumstance unfit to meet the irreverent eyes of Parisian readers. We might go on multiplying examples, but we have already quoted enough to shew the inquisitorial despotism of Bonaparte, and the complete slavery of the French press.—Two English translations of these Memoirs have appeared.

ART. IV. *Considérations sur l'état,* &c. *i. e.* Considerations on the present State of Christianity. By JOHN TREMBLEY. 8vo. pp.574. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

DEISTICAL writers are very numerous on the continent, particularly in Germany; and their plan of proceeding, however apparently varied, constantly has for its object the destruction of all credence in the Holy Scriptures. M. TREMBLEY manfully takes the field against this host of infidels; and by a minute review of their various writings, or rather of the reports of their contents in different literary journals, he endeavours to shew the dissonance and instability of their principles.

So numerous are the adversaries of our holy religion, noticed in these pages, that the author ought rather to have intitled his work, *Considerations on the present state of Deism*, than on that of Christianity. He has developed, but with more prolixity than was absolutely necessary, the various methods employed by the German and French literati to depreciate the gospel of Jesus Christ; and if he has not managed the argument with all the ability which the more learned apologists for revelation in this country would have employed, he has presented us with a full view of the deistical theory of the modern German school: which, if it should be countenanced on this side of the water, will no doubt be resisted with more critical sagacity, if not with more zeal, than M. TREMBLEY brings to the task. In truth, this writer ingenuously owns that his learning and abilities are not equal to his undertaking; and the English theologue, who has studiously devoted himself to sacred literature, and who peruses this volume, will often find reason to lament the author's insufficiency. It will also be perceived, from the objections started in the writings of the continental deists, that they have a very superficial acquaintance with the subject of revealed religion; and that the discoveries which they boast to have made, during the last thirty years, in the interpretation of the Scriptures, by which the aspect of religion is entirely changed, merit not the name of discoveries, but of dogmatism, and will not with sensible men excite that gratitude which these innovators pretend is due to them.

The present author feels himself hurt at the insidious methods by which Christianity is now attacked; and he exposes not merely the hypocrisy of a particular sect of infidels, who assail the Gospel under the mask of assumed belief in what they call its essential matter, but also the undisguised sophistry of those who, with the *credibility*, would subvert and bring into disrespect the very *morality* of the gospel. He details every hypothesis and shade of opinion; and though enlightened Christians, as he remarks, have no ground to be discouraged, or to sink into despair, they ought not to slumber in a state of scandalous security, but should labour with zeal for the advancement and support of that religion which is the source of their hope and the support of their happiness; should resist with courage and constancy these errors which appear to them to be dangerous; and should strive to confirm the faith of pious minds, and to guard young persons against misrepresentations which are apt to attract by their novelty.

More effectually to embrace the different points of controversy between believers and modern infidels, M. TREMBLEY divides his work into six chapters. In the 1st, he treats of the nature of Christianity, and of the facts on which it rests; in the 2d, of Miracles; in the 3d, of the objections which have been raised against miracles, and of the method in which their adversaries have proceeded; in the 4th, he examines the following questions, 'Whether Jesus Christ does not appeal to his miracles in confirmation of his doctrine?' 'Whether he accommodated his ideas to those of the Jews?' 'Whether every thing ought to be decided by a reference to his doctrine?' 'Whether, if Christ be nothing more than a philosopher, Christianity must not fall to the ground?' and 'Whether natural religion must not succumb under the same strokes which are levelled at the Christian religion?'—In chap. 5. he treats of the metaphysical principles of the modern innovators, of their opposition to the morality of the gospel, of the nature of that morality, and of the conditions which are essential to it; and in chap. 6. of the nature, extent, and legitimate use of human reason,—of indifference in matters of religion,—and of the effects which result from a system which substitutes metaphysics for religion.

M. TREMBLEY has committed a little chronological mistake in stating the time of our Saviour's birth, which he places in the reign of Tiberius Cæsar, instead of that of Augustus: but this error, though requiring notice, does not affect the argument of the work. He commences with a concise account of what he regards as the substance of the doctrine of the N. T., and then proceeds to consider distinctly the system and mode of reasoning adopted by its several assailants. These persons may be divided into two leading classes; the first comprehending those who profess a great respect for the morality of the Gospel, but doubt the historical facts and particularly the miracles recorded by the evangelists; the second, those who deny the credibility and even the possibility of miracles, and the excellence of the Gospel as a moral system. To infidels, whether covertly insinuating or openly avowing their principles, M. TREMBLEY presents himself as a strenuous opponent; and we trust that his representations will have some effect, if not in converting the champions of deism, at least in resisting its progress. His first chapter animadverts on those pretended Christians whose faith includes a belief neither in the doctrines of prophecy nor in those of inspiration: and who contend that, if they respect the morality contained in the preaching of Christ, they are at full liberty to reject all the narrative of his life and ministry as fabulous. On this subject, the writer remarks that

> 'Christianity does not consist in a name: if it has any reality, it ought to rest on some basis, and this basis is no other than the facts which prove the divinity of its origin. Reject these facts, and Christianity is overturned; and those who pretend to preserve the name of

Christian, while they subvert all that is essential to Christianity, imitate those democrats who would take from a prince all authority, and leave him nothing but the name of king.'

A deistical journalist of the new school having asserted that those cannot be learned Christians who do not separate the morals of the Gospel from its facts, this author replies that 'on this principle Christianity is only thirty years old, that before this period no Christians existed, and that even St. Paul was not a Christian, since he has ventured to assert that if Jesus Christ be not risen our faith is vain.'

The chapter on Miracles adverts to an hypothesis which some German professors have hazarded, that the miraculous narratives of the N. T. are nothing more than the relations of ordinary events in the exaggerations and hyperboles of the Eastern style; that, for instance, the account of the miraculous conversion of St. Paul was the mere effect of a storm of thunder and lightning; and that the miracle of feeding the 5000 with five barley loaves and two fishes means only that the multitude were fed, to their great surprise, by the judicious distribution of the little which they had with them, beginning with the stock of the disciples, which consisted of only five loaves and two fishes: but this notion is so untenable, that we shall not dwell on its refutation; only observing by the way that these pretended discoveries of modern times are the mere echoes of the doctrine of Spinoza.

It is impossible for us to mention the several works which provoke M. TREMBLEY's animadversions: but we shall present our readers with a summary view of the controversy, and with a specimen of the author's mode of argumentation in a passage at the end of the fourth chapter:

'The citations which I have accumulated in this chapter appear to me sufficient for the end which I have in view. The innovators pretend at one time that Christ did not appeal for evidence to his miracles, but made all the efficacy of his ministry to depend on his doctrine; at another, that he ingrafted his notions on those of the Jews, and had recourse to the marvellous and to the intervention of the divinity, because the ideas of the Jews all went in that direction: but these two assertions are contradictory; for if Jesus Christ is to be considered as relying only on his doctrine; if these expressions, *the works which I do,* merely signify *the words which I speak,* he has not accommodated himself to the ideas of the Jews, who believed in the miracles of Moses and the prophets, and who looked on the Messiah as a prophet in an eminent degree: one assertion manifestly excludes the other; and the people, to whom opinions so opposite are successively given, must find themselves in a labyrinth from which they cannot extricate themselves. What are they to believe? To which party are they to attach themselves? Who are they who have discovered the truth, and who are the preachers of error? By what marks are we to recognize the sound doctrine, since the text of Scripture, taken in its natural sense, is as hostile to the one as to the other? Besides, where are we to stop? Shall we admit with some of these men that Christ was only a philosopher, who, by his deep meditations and profound wisdom, has brought to light such fundamental truths of natural religion as the existence of God, and the immortality of the soul? Shall we believe with St. Paul that the invisible perfections of the Deity, his eternal power, &c. become manifest when we consider his works; or shall we reject, with other theologues of the same school, all the proofs of the existence of God which result from the contemplation of nature? Shall we suppose with these latter that the consideration of the visible world cannot conduct us to the existence of an invisible Being, of a first cause, and that we must be satisfied with saying that good people cannot help believing in the existence of a God, almighty and merciful? In fine, shall we, with a majority of these innovators, adopt all the moral maxims which occur in the gospel? Shall we regard them as a present of Providence, who has indirectly effected the communication of them to men; or shall we examine with the other party each of these maxims, and reject those which appear strange and exaggerated? Shall we esteem the apostles as the faithful and intelligent disciples of Jesus, who have transmitted to us, in its integrity, the doctrine of their master; or shall we regard them as dull and stupid individuals, who were incapable of apprehending and explaining his doctrine? In one word, what will remain of either *revealed* or *natural* religion?'

These questions are pertinent, inasmuch as they serve to shew how incompatible are the propositions which are laid down in the deistical school. As, however, the subject of miracles is the great stumbling-block with infidels, and as their chief artillery is directed against what they deem the strong hold of Christianity, it is proper to adduce the arguments which are advanced against miracles, and the manner in which M. TREMBLEY refutes them. The author of a work, intitled "*An essay on the means of thinking rationally on religion,*" having remarked that miracles are so intimately wrought into the text of the gospels, that they cannot be separated without destroying the latter, afforded a deistical journalist an opportunity of observing that

'A miracle, strictly speaking, suspends the operation of the powers of nature; it is contrary to the eternal and necessarily immutable laws of the creation; it interrupts the course of the regular order between cause and consequence; it destroys the assurance and the confidence of the rational creature in the essential constitution of things: so that, by the multiplication of miracles, the government of the world and of Providence would become an arbitrary scene, in which no certainty could exist.'

To this representation, M. Trembley thus replies:

'See in what manner bad metaphysics overturns all, and saps the foundations of good sense! These definitions of the author are at bottom only arbitrary suppositions, expressly brought forwards to prove a thesis for which he has a great affection. Previously, however, to this display, he should have told us what is the action of the Deity who created the world and has preserved it; he must inform us what are the laws of the creation, and how these laws can subsist without the action of the Diety Philosophers, till of late, have believed that which the Scriptures teach us, that the preservation of the universe is in fact the operation of God ("withdraw thy breath and they return to dust"); were not this the case, the Supreme Being would be reduced to a level with the gods of Epicurus; the machine of the universe being once set in motion, he would not farther trouble himself about it, and would be a stranger to his own work. It follows that God acts incessantly according to a prescribed plan, and this plan is consistent with an admirable regularity in the effects which we observe: but is this regularity absolutely necessary and invariable? This would be to admit the *Fate* of the Stoics; the providence of God would in like manner, as in the preceding case, become nullified, if he had been obliged at the beginning to project laws which he could not suspend in any event, nor for any reason whatsoever. The regularity of the apparent laws of nature does not then hinder the Deity from introducing what may be termed exceptions, when his views demand them The plan of the creation might require that God should reveal himself in certain cases to men: but the innovators affirm that the thing is impossible, that it is a strange parodox. Without ceremony, they put themselves in the place of the Supreme Being, assign his intimate nature and the consequences which must result from it, and determine what he can and cannot do. In all these researches, they have no other guide than their own fantasy, no other support than certain metaphysical apophthegms which contain nothing but words. They are altogether ignorant in what manner the Deity acts, and therefore cannot reason on this point *à priori*. The simile of a machine which requires the hand of the maker is inapplicable; because a machine subsists without the concurrence of the maker, whereas the universe cannot subsist without the incessant energy of the Deity.—Instead of saying that a miracle suspends the powers of nature, that it contradicts the immutable and eternal laws of the creation, &c.;—instead of accumulating these vague phrases, and heaping one word on another;—they ought, by stating the question in a clear and precise manner, to inform us what are the powers of nature, and how philosophers have discovered their laws and operations. This great word *Nature* has often been employed by sceptics; atheists have substituted it for that of *God*, and think to serve their cause by this means: but what is Nature in the system of these innovators? It can be nothing else than an assemblage of created beings, existing according to laws which result from their constitution. How have philosophers obtained a knowlege of these laws? by the observation of effects which are comparatively few, so that their knowlege of the laws of nature reduces itself to the knowlege of certain facts connected with each other, while the manner of operation remains absolutely unknown.

'When, therefore, the journalist observes that a miracle suspends the powers of nature, this signifies nothing more than that a miracle is a fact which is not analogous with those which are presented to ordinary observation, and does not consist with what we call the order of nature. How the cause of this fact, of this miracle, combines itself with the causes of those facts which we daily witness, we know not, since we are not acquainted with the intimate nature of causes.'

This argument is carried to some length; and though it is not new, it is so far adapted to the state of the controversy, that M. Trembley will be pardoned for repeating and expanding it. We shall not enter here into the author's inquiry respecting the nature, extent, and limits of the human understanding: but we can assure him that we approve of his undertaking on the whole, and hope that his zealous defence of Christianity will fulfil those good purposes on the continent for which he so devoutly prays.

Art. V. *Traité d'Acoustique;* &c. *i. e.* A Treatise on Acoustics. By E. F. F. Chladni, Doctor of Philosohpy and of Laws, and Member of several Academies. 8vo. pp. 400. and 8 Plates. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe.

In a report made to the French Institute, which is subjoined to this volume, we have an account of the circumstances which led to the publication of the work. It appears that M. Chladni invented a very ingenious method of discovering the motion which is produced in vibrating plates, by sprinkling them over with fine sand, and then observing what change is produced in the arrangement of the particles of the sand by the vibratory action. These experiments being announced to the Institute, it was resolved to make them the subject of a prize question; the author was hence induced to pay farther attention to the subject, and at length he produced the treatise now under our review. As the title imports, it is not confined to original experiments or discoveries, but is to be regarded as a complete system of Acoustics. It is divided into four parts; 1st, of the numerical relation of vibrations; 2d, of the vibrations of sonorous bodies; 3d, of communicated vibrations, or the propagation of sound; and 4th, of the sensation of sound.

The first part consists principally of the explanation of terms, and the commonly received doctrines on the subject of the musical scale. It contains, however, some new and interesting

teresting matter which deserves to be pointed out. We may particularly notice the invention of what is called a *tonometer*; that is, an instrument for judging of the number of vibrations which are essential to every musical sound. This instrument consists of a slip of iron, which is fixed at one end; and by noticing the motion of the other extremity, and comparing the effects produced under different circumstances, the number of vibrations are determined which constitute a particular sound. This tonometer appears to have been very useful to M. CHLADNI in his experimental investigations. — After some general remarks on the musical scale, the author proceeds to the subject of *temperament*, or, as he calls it, the altered relations of sounds; and having given a short account of the different schemes that have been proposed, he concludes in favour of the *equal temperament*. He considers it as 'the most conformable to nature, because, from the equal division of the difference on all the intervals, except the octave, the inaccuracy of each interval is too small to affect the ear in an unpleasant manner. All the homogeneous intervals are of the same magnitude, and the twelve semi-tones which the octavo contains are a geometrical progression.'

It is in the second part of the work that the author's discoveries are chiefly contained; and this is divided into a number of sections, each describing the vibratory motions of different kinds of bodies; cords, membranes, tubes of air, straight rods, bent rods, (such as forks and rings,) plates of different figures, and bells. Before he enters on the particular description of the vibrations of each of these bodies, M. CHLADNI points out three essential variations in the direction of vibratory motions in general. We believe the distinction to be new, and it appears to us of considerable importance:

'The direction of the vibratory motion (he says,) may be either transverse, longitudinal, or in alternate rotations (*tournante*). In transverse vibrations, the sounding body, or the parts of it, perform their motions from one side to the other, so that the lines described by every point of the body make a right angle with the axis. Longitudinal vibrations consist in the contraction and dilatation of the sounding body or of its parts in the direction of its axis, or according to its length. The bodies susceptible of such motions are, 1st, air contained in wind instruments, and 2dly, strings, or straight rods of sufficient length. The rotatory vibrations, of which rods or plates are susceptible, consist of the tensions which are alternately produced in opposite directions. In cylindrical or prismatic rods, the sound of these vibrations is always more grave by a 5th than the longitudinal sound of the same body.'

These three kinds of vibrations appear to be generated according to the direction in which the impulse is conveyed to the vibrating body. In the instance of a stretched cord, when it is rubbed by a body in a direction perpendicular to its length, the transverse vibration is produced; when rubbed in the direction of its length, the longitudinal vibration is produced; and the rotatory, when it is rubbed in a direction oblique to its axis. A considerable difference prevails in the nature of the vibration, depending on the nature of the substance with which the cord is rubbed. 'The laws of longitudinal vibrations differ considerably from those of transverse vibrations. The only resemblance between them is that the sound does not depend on the thickness of the cord, nor on its tension, but solely on its length, and the matter of which it is composed: a brass wire produces a sound sharper by nearly a 6th than a catgut-string, and the sound of a steel wire exceeds that of a brass wire by nearly a 5th.' As we consider the observations on the difference between the transverse and longitudinal vibrations to be among the most important facts in this volume, we shall lay before our readers a comparative view of the different properties of each:

> '1st. *Properties of transverse vibrations.* The motion is produced in the transverse direction. The rod forms different curved lines, in making transverse inflexions. The sounds are inversely as the squares of the lengths. The sounds are in the relations of the squares of certain numbers which form an arithmetical progression. The sounds are in the ratio of the thickness. They are as the square roots of the transverse rigidity, that is of the resistance against the inflexions, and inversely as the square roots of the specific gravity.—2d. *Properties of the longitudinal vibrations.* The motion is produced in the direction of the length, or of the axis. The rod contracts and dilates in different ways in the direction of the axis. The sounds are in the relation of series of odd and even numbers. The sounds are inversely as the lengths. The thickness has no effect on the sound unless it be very unequal, when the sound may be a little affected. The sounds are as the square roots of the longitudinal rigidity, that is, of the resistance against compression and dilatation; and inversely as the square roots of the specific gravity.'

We have already remarked that some of the author's most important discoveries were those on the vibration of plates, in which he caused the nature of these vibrations to be rendered visible by covering the plates with fine sand; and in the 7th section, this subject is treated in detail, and minute directions are given for performing these experiments. In the motions of plates, the changes of form cannot be expressed by curved lines, as in the tranverse vibration of cords or rods, but by curved surfaces; and the immoveable parts are not points but lines, which are called *nodal lines.* In order to produce the different kinds of vibratory motions of plates, and to render the nodal lines visible, we are directed to keep one or more parts fixed, and to put in motion a moveable part by the bow of a violin, after having spred on the surface a little sand, which is repelled by the tremulous motions of the vibrating parts, and is accumulated on the nodal lines. The experiments may be performed either with glass or with different kinds of metals; employing those only which are sufficiently sonorous, such as brass or copper. Even plates of wood may be used: but the figures a lar, because the elasticity is not the same in the difl tions. M. Chladni has found glass plates on the most convenient, and he preferred those that are thi it is intended to produce the most simple figures on ter of from three to six inches will be sufficient, ore complicated figures larger plates must be emp order to have the figures regular, it is important tha should be every where of the same thickness. Tl to be firmly grasped by the finger and thumb, or tl ject may be attained by an apparatus which the aut. bes. The point at which the pressure is made should be at the intersection of two nodal lines, because by this means less interruption is given to the natural course of the vibrations. The figures which will be produced in any particular plate depend in a considerable degree on the manner in which the plate is held; and, by varying the position, different figures may be produced at pleasure. The figures, however, to a certain extent, depend on the peculiar constitution of the plate, and cannot in any instance be exactly predicted. Considerable delicacy appears to be necessary in the management of the bow; and on the whole it seems very probable that any person who attempts to repeat these experiments will, in the outset, meet with many difficulties. We do not, however, mean to insinuate any doubt respecting the accuracy of M. Chladni's statements, which we have every reason to believe are given with correctness and fidelity. — Eight plates are subjoined, expressive of the forms which the sand assumes under all the different circumstances; and the relation is pointed out between these forms and the musical sound which is produced from the plate. The whole may be considered as constituting a train of experiments which are highly interesting, both as to their immediate results and as to the consequences which may be deduced from them: but any more particular account of them would be impracticable in this place, from the abstruseness of the subject, and from the want of the explanatory figures.

In the 3d division, containing an account of the manner in which sound is propagated both by aeriform fluids and by solid bodies, we do not meet with so much novelty as in the former part: but we have a correct and well digested account of the facts which are generally admitted, and the principles which are deducible from them. Almost the only matter that can be considered as new is an account of some experiments on the effect of several gases in the propagation of sound, with respect to the quickness of its motion and to its intensity. The differences which were observed seemed principally to depend on a difference in the density of the gases.—We may make the same remark on the fourth as on the third part; that, without pretending to any new discoveries, it gives a good view of the information which we before possessed on the subject.

Altogether, the perusal of this volume has afforded us much satisfaction. It is one of those performances by which both the progress of science and its diffusion are promoted; the former, by the additions which are made to our previous stock of knowlege; and the latter, by exhibiting what was before known in an intelligible and interesting form. M. CHLADNI seems to have well deserved the public honours which were bestowed on him by the Institute of France; and we sincerely wish that the rewards of this and every other scientific body were at all times equally appropriate.

ART. VI. FREDERICI MÜNTERI, S. Theol. D. et Prof. P. O. *Siaellandiæ et Ordinum Regiorum Equestrium Episcopi. Ordinis Danebrogici Equitis, ad Reverendissimum Ecclesiæ Suio-Gothicæ Archiepiscopum* Jacobum Axelium Lindblom, *S. Theol D Universitatis Upsaliensis Procancellarium, et Ordinis de Stella Polari Commendatorem, Epistola de duobus Monumentis veteris Ecclesiæ.* 8vo. pp. 36. Hafniæ. 1810.

THE first of the two antiques which are the subjects of this letter is an onyx, intended as it is supposed for a ring, on which are engraven an anchor between two fishes, with the letters IHCOY serving as an inscription around the figures. Bishop MÜNTER considers this gem, which was brought from the East to Rome, as having belonged to some Christian in the third or fourth century; and he employs his knowlege of ecclesiastical antiquity in decyphering the above symbols. He first remarks concerning the *anchor*, that, when it occurs on Christian gems, it had originally no reference to Hope, but was used to denote the tranquillity and joy of Christian believers, arising from the grace of Christ and the benefits of the Gospel; though, perhaps, in succeeding periods, it came into use as an emblem of Hope. The anchor is often seen on the gems and monuments of the early Christians, with the mystical word ΙΧΘΥΣ inscribed on it; and the R. R. author, in order to explain the antique before him, quotes from the antient Fathers of the church several passages in proof of the superstitious reverence in which they held this word, as well as the figure of a fish, by which was often designated the Saviour of the World. "*Piscis nomen,*" we are told, "*secundum appellationem græcam in uno nomine, per singulas literas turbam sanctorum nominum continet.*" Considering each letter as standing for a word, [illegible] made to signify Ιησȣς Χριϛος Θεȣ Υιος Σωτηρ, or [illegible] *esus Christus, Dei filius, Salvator.* Thus this mys[illegible] or the figure which it denotes, when engraven [illegible] tance, was supposed to operate as a charm, as an [illegible] repellant of evil spirits. The Bishop of Zealand ad[illegible] gh to prove the childish fancies of the antient Chr[illegible] is head. He also shews that, when more than o[illegible] urred, the followers of Christ, in allusion to wha[illegible] said to Peter, were designated; and that, with the [illegible] subjoined, *fish belonging to Christ* were intended. Co[illegible] the gem in question, he does not offer any decided opinion: but he inclines to that of Lupius, who supposes that stones of this kind set in rings were used in the marriage-ceremonies of the antient Christians; while the nature of the engraving and the shape of the letters, seem to refer it to the third or fourth century of the Christian æra.

The second antique is not a *Sardus lapillus* but a piece of lead, *vile metallum*, as the Bishop terms it: though, from its undoubted antiquity, as he believes, it becomes more valuable than a piece of precious metal. It was stamped, we are told, with the figures and inscription which it now bears, in the seventh century; and it belongs to the class of *Bullæ*, which were first appended to the imperial diplomas, and afterward used by princes, magistrates, and bishops. Of such *bullæ*, those most in request bear the names of some of the oldest Roman Pontiffs, and till very lately none were found inscribed with the name of any Bishop of Carthage. Dr. M. therefore congratulates himself on his good fortune in having discovered, in a heap of broken shells and stones, a *bulla* bearing on one side the name of VICTOR, who presided over the church of Carthage, A. D. 646, and having on the reverse the figure of the Virgin with Christ in her arms, and on each side the figure of the cross.

The whole of the inscription is clearly this, ✠ BICTORIS EPISCP KARTG. To prove that by the first word VICTOR is meant, it is observed that the substitution of B for V was not unusual on coins and in inscriptions; that BIXIT for *vixit*, BIRGO for *Virgo*, &c. are of frequent occurrence in monuments of the age to which this *bulla* is referred; and that in Greek the name was uniformly written Βικτωρ. As to the abbreviated terms, no doubt is entertained of their being employed to signify *Episcopi Karthaginis;* and since no obscurity prevails respecting the inscription itself, and a *Victor*, bishop of Carthage, is known to have flourished about the middle of the seventh century, this *bulla* of lead is supposed to have been stamped with this legend, and with the above-specified reverse, during his episcopacy. The R. R. letter-writer endeavours to throw some light on the annals of the church of Carthage: but scanty is the information which can now be collected; and after all, as no hints are given to illustrate the history of this *bulla*, or to account for its travels from Africa to the north of Europe, a sceptic may question the antiquity of this leaden curiosity. The letter, however, is creditable to Bishop MÜNTER on the score of antiquarian research, and is a specimen of the ardour with which literature is prosecuted on the shores of the Baltic. A representation of the *Gem* is given at the beginning, and of the *Bulla* at the end of the pamphlet.

ART. VII. *Voyage aux Isles de Téneriffe*, &c.; *i. e.* A Voyage to the Islands of Teneriffe, Trinidad, St. Thomas, Ste. Croix, and Porto Rico, performed in pursuance of the Orders of the French Government, from the 30th of September, 1796, to the 7th of June, 1798, under the Direction of Captain *Baudin*, with the View of making Researches and Collections in Natural History; containing Observations relative to the Climate, Soil, Population, Agriculture, and Production of these Islands, as well as the Character, Manners, and Commerce of their Inhabitants. By ANDRE' PIERRE LE DRU, one of the Naturalists of the Expedition, Member of the Society of Arts, &c. &c. Accompanied with Notes and Additions, by M. *Sonnini*, and illustrated by a very fine Map, engraved from that of Lopez, by *J. B. Tardieu*. 2 Vols. 8vo. About 320 Pages in each. Paris, 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. sewed.

THIS ample title-page sufficiently bespeaks the object of the work to which it is prefixed. M. *Sonnini*'s share in the publication is thus stated by himself;

'It was not without considerable hesitation that I permitted my name to be associated with a work, of which I am neither the editor, revisor, nor commentator; to intrude, in short, where I am not expected, or where, apparently, I have no concern. This sort of introduction is prompted by no ambitious motive; for nobody is less desirous than I am of interfering in the affairs of others; and, if I take part in those of M. LE DRU, it is certainly with no intention of improving them; for they are too well arranged not to be exhibited openly, and without the assistance of another. But M. Le Dru does not live in Paris; and he required some person to overlook the printing of his manuscript, and to revise the proof-sheets; in short, to forward the publication. It was natural for one traveller to apply to another; and I feel gratified in having deserved the preference. I thought that I should render myself worthy of his choice, and at the same time testify my esteem and dutiful respect for the author, by annexing to the narrative of [illegible] of which the publication has been confided to me, som [illegible] dditions, not calculated to increase its interest, but to re [illegible] complete. These notes and additions, which are dist [illegible] m the rest of the work by my signature, consist of some [illegible] tions relative to the countries which M Le Dru has [illegible] zoology, and a few other topics. It behoves me, more [illegible] re that I have not altered a syllable of the manuscript, [illegible] ich I do not consider myself as permitted to touch, ar [illegible] ides, had no need of correction.'

Leaving this justly cel [illegible] uralist to reconcile the double inconsistency of ren [illegible] rk, already so perfect as to require no alteration or addition, *more complete*, and of effecting this purpose *without adding to its interest*, we proceed to remark that, if stripped of the supplementary notices, M. Le Dru's journal would, by the majority of readers, be regarded as in general very dry and meagre. We say *in general*, because we certainly have met with some pleasing and instructive passages, although by far the largest portion of the work is measured out in short and uninteresting memoranda. Even of M. *Sonnini's* own contributions, many are obviously penned in too vague a style, to afford much pleasure or entertainment to such European readers as wish to become acquainted with the objects which he describes. For this defect, however, and for the abrupt termination of his labours, the misfortune of a tedious illness, which had already long retarded the appearance of these volumes, may be considered as a satisfactory apology. In regard to some charges of a more serious complexion, neither ingenuity nor charity, we apprehend, can urge any plausible excuse. A gentleman, who stands so high in the rolls of literary and scientific fame, should not have lent his signature to a wanton description of the Calenda dance, which is ushered in unrequired; and which, though detailed in the language of a Benedictine monk, may alarm the modest, and vitiate the imaginations of the young. Again, in his notices of the Flying fish, M. *Sonnini* should have blushed to insinuate that Nature has purposely destined any of her creatures to a life of misery and torment. The puny attempts of man to arraign the wisdom and goodness of Divine Providence must necessarily originate in human ignorance and presumption; and every step that we advance, in the progress of natural science, ought to strengthen the conviction that the allotments of pleasure and pain, to the infinitely diversified races of sentient beings, are adjusted by a more admirable system of compensations, than a hasty and cursory examination might induce us to suppose. We may also rest assured, that gradations in the capacities of enjoyment have been ordained in conformity with important and beneficent designs; and that, in a world which reveals to the most superficial observer such countless traces of wisdom and benevolence, we are not warranted to argue impotence or evil intention from those appearances which our limited faculties may be unable to comprehend. On the present occasion, M. *Sonnini* cannot even affect the merit of originality, since his illustrious precursor had indulged in a similar vein of unbecoming criticism; bewailing, in idle declamation, the sluggishness of the Sloths, their languid eyes, imperfect conformation, and helpless condition: but, unless he had been endowed with the constitution and disposition of these animals, he was incompetent to affirm that the sum of their pains exceeds that of their pleasures. That eloquent writer, however, is strangely inconsistent with himself. According to his views of the arrangements of Providence, animals may be called into existence to partake of pure suffering; and he endeavours to confirm his position by the example of man, whom he represents as a being devoted to wretchedness from the moment of his birth. After this bold and alarming preamble, we might reasonably expect much doleful wailing over the beasts of the field, the fishes of the sea, and the fowls of heaven. In the course of a few sentences, however, the Sloth figures as a *solitary* instance of the cruelty of Nature to her offspring; and, almost in the same breath, we are dismissed with the consoling doctrine that this alleged misery may not be real, and that Nature, even in her most neglected productions, is more a mother than a step-dame. Notwithstanding these illogical fluctuations of sentiment on the part of the Count *de Buffon*, M. *Sonnini* recurs to the same strain of murmuring, when the Sloth is introduced in the present publication.—We are thus solicitous to point out the only objectionable parts of the notes, because, in other respects, we conceive that they form an important accompaniment of the original text.

From the author's preliminary notice, we may collect that Captain *Baudin* was a naval officer who had manifested a decided predilection for voyages of scientific discovery; that from 1786 to 1789, he conducted an expedition to the South Sea, at the expence of the House of Austria, and returned with a numerous assortment of plants, which now embellish the Imperial Gardens at Schoenbrunn; that in 1793 he embarked at Trieste, on a second trip, visiting China, the peninsula of India, the Cape of Good Hope, &c. but that, on his return, being assailed by a tempest, he was compelled to touch at Trinidad, where he deposited the wreck of a precious collection of specimens in natural history, viz. 195 living plants, a large quantity of shells, [illegible], petrifactions, minerals, fishes, insects, stuffed qu [illegible] birds, &c. On his arrival in his native countr [illegible] *n* made an offering of all these objects to the govern [illegible] e Directory accompanied their acceptance of the do [illegible] an order to arm *en flûte*, at Hâvre, the *Belle Angéli* [illegible] of 800 tons burthen, and appointed Captain *Baudin* [illegible] command, that he might convey his collection in pe [illegible] ie West Indies. 'For the furtherance of this operatio [illegible] author) and of researches connected with the same ob [illegible] rofessors of the Museum of Natural History were dire [illegible] e Minister of the Marine, to select four naturalists, as [illegible] v-labourers in the expedition. On this occasion, I had the good fortune to be nominated to the place of botanist. Various circumstances, which I shall detail in the sequel, combined to alter the destination of our course from that which had been fixed by the government. A storm drove us among the Canary islands:—the English, who were in possession of Trinidad, when we landed there, would not allow us to remain on the island more than eight days;—and, lastly, the Captain, who was unwilling to return from the West Indies to Europe without having justified the confidence of the Directory, and, as it were, empty-handed, resolved to touch successively at the Danish islands, and at Porto Rico.'

The author next recites, in the language of unfeigned and respectful gratitude, the names of those individuals from whose conversation or writings he had derived any important information. Guided in his estimate of human character by the liberal yet discriminating spirit of truth and justice, he generously disavows all intention of involving the European colonists of the western hemisphere in one common and unmeaning sentence of reprobation. His philanthropic disposition, however, we suspect, is more powerful than the acuteness of his intellect, or the fertility of his genius: for his friend *Sonnini* intimates, in no equivocal manner, that he had greatly over-rated the qualifications of his commander; and, in the course of his journal, we have met with few observations that bespeak any extraordinary mental endowments. His more immediate associates were *Maugé*, who had charge of the zoological department, *Riedlé*, the gardener, *Tuffet*, the surgeon, *Advenier*, a pupil of the school of Mines, three amateurs of Natural History, &c. Their instructions, drawn up by M. *de Jussieu*, are expressed with singular felicity, and may suggest some useful hints to collectors of natural curiosities: but, with the exception of those which have a reference to botany, and the transportation of living plants across seas, they are by much too short and general.

The expedition set sail from Hâvre de Grace, on the 30th of September, 1796, and appears to have proceeded smoothly onwards to the 34th degree of north latitude, between the Azores and Madeira; when the violent storm already mentioned, which the author describes more like a sailor than a botanist, greatly disabled the vessel, and compelled the Captain to proceed to the Canaries. At length, on the 6th of November, after having encountered many difficulties and dangers, he moored in the Port of Ste. Croix, in Teneriffe.

'Those travellers,' it is observed in a note, 'have been accused of exaggeration, who have alleged that the peak of Teneriffe may be recognized at more than forty leagues' distance; and yet this phænomenon is founded on the laws of physics and trigonometry, which teach us that a body elevated 1710 metres above the horizon (and this is the height of the peak, as calculated by *Borda*,) is visible under an angle of five degrees, to an observer placed at 22 miles distance; or, more accurately, at 22′, 8″, reckoning by the terrestrial degree; and under an angle of 50′, if the observer be at 97′, 52″ (about 98 miles.) It is well known that a minute of a terrestrial degree is equivalent to a mile, or to the third part of a marine league.

"The peak is no longer visible," says *Borda*, "when we are removed from it to the distance of 1·9 miles, or 43 leagues: but then the observer's eye is supposed to be situated on a level with the sea; if the eye be raised twenty toises above that level, he will cease to see the peak only at the distance of 47 leagues, and at $48\frac{2}{3}$ leagues, if raised to 40 toises; at 50 leagues, if the elevation be 60 toises; at 51 leagues, if it be 80 toises; and, in short, if the elevation of the eye be 100 toises, the peak will cease to be visible only at the distance of 52 leagues." (Voyage, I. 1380.)

'The geographer, *Thomas Lopez*, informs us that it may be discovered at about 41 leagues, of 20 to a degree each.

'*Le Marchand*, the navigator, also attests that the peak may be discerned at the distance of 42 leagues from a ship's deck, and at 35, if the spectator be placed in the horizon.

'Father *Fuillée* alleges that he perceived it in 1704, from the channel which separates Lancerota from Fortaventura: but *Borda* maintains that this is impossible.

'Lastly, M. *Malte-Brun*, in the learned notes with which he has just enriched the translation of Barrow's Travels to Cochin-China, adopts the opinion that the peak is visible at 100 miles distance, or at 41 leagues, of 25 to a degree.'

The author's report of the climate of the Canaries is not very reconcileable with the ideas which we associate with *Fortunate Islands*; the atmosphere being liable to frequent variations, and to sudden transitions from the most intense heat to the most piercing cold. On the 26th of July, 1704, the excessive heat made the resinous matter exude from the fir of the doors and window-frames, and dried up all the springs. A long continuation of easterly or south-easterly winds occasions the most distressing droughts; and the north-wind, which generally prevails about the beginning of winter, is accompanied by very humid fogs. These islands are also visited by dreadful hurricanes, which have occasionally torn up trees by the roots, overthrown houses, and left other vestiges of their desolating fury. The island of Canary, properly so called, enjoys, from its considerable elevation above the sea, a very pleasant and uniform temperature.

‘When Fortaventura is sufficiently watered by the rains, its harvests are very abundant, and it exports the superfluity of its produce: but when its soil, which is deprived of rivers, and has but a small number of springs, is too much dried, its sterility is deplorable, and many of the inhabitants, starving with hunger, are compelled to emigrate. This event occurred in the interval between 1768 and 1771, during which period not a drop of rain fell on Fortaventura. Most of the inhabitants, in order to escape from death, fled to Canary, to Teneriffe, and to Palma, where they were received with the utmost kindness and hospitality. Don *Lopez de Heredia*, the governor, and Don *Juan Servera*, Bishop of that Archipelago, distinguished themselves on this disastrous occasion, by their bounty to these unfortunate people. The former caused a great quantity of corn to be brought from Spain and Morocco, and daily distributed nearly 1500 rations of provisions to the poor refugees. The island of Palma supported about 3000 of them; and the city of Laguna, the capital of Teneriffe, received a great number, and shared with them all its resources.’

We notice the volcanic eruption which took place in Lancerota, in September, 1730, on account of two remarkable circumstances; namely, the great distance at which the explosions were heard, which was not less than 54 leagues, and the fertile nature of the ejected sand and ashes, which in many places covered the soil to the depth of four or five feet. The inhabitants pierce the whole depth of this incoherent stratum for the insertion of their vines; which flourish to such a degree, that a single plant has not unfrequently yielded half a pipe of wine.

The observations on Teneriffe are rather minute than important, and convey little new information concerning that island. We are told, however, in a note, that in most of the churches a printed list of the books proscribed by the Inquisition is hung up; among which are *Montesquieu*'s Spirit of Laws, *Condillac's Cours d'Etudes*, *Necker* on the importance of religious Opinions, *Smith*'s Wealth of Nations, and *Burke*'s Reflections on the French Revolution.

In a chapter devoted to short notices of the men of letters who have been born in the Canaries, we are told that 'Fortaventura has the honour of having given birth to *Don Joseph de Viera y Clavijo*, Canon of Canary, Member of the Academy of History at Madeira, of the Economical Society at Teneriffe, &c. This distinguished writer has published a poem in the Spanish language on the Analyses of the different sorts of Airs by Priestley; another on Aerostats; the Eloge of Philip V.; and that of *Alfonso Tostat*, a celebrated Doctor of Salamanca, during the 15th century: but the most solid foundation of his fame is his History of the Canaries.'—Of this history, M. Le Dru, on various occasions, appears to have availed himself.

Of *Juan Yriarte*'s works, the best is said to be his Latin Grammar; and well it may claim a preference, since it cost him *forty years* of study.

From the scanty view of the mineralogy of Teneriffe, which is exhibited in this publication, we are led to infer that the whole island presents, at first sight, little else than one irregular mass of lavas, flags, and rocks, confusedly thrown together. In the cultivated spots, these volcanic matters have been pulverized by frequent tillage and the ceaseless action of the weather: but most of the plains are parched, and contain little vegetable mould. Here and there only, amid naked mountains, precipices, and ravines, the eye of the spectator catches some favoured spot not yet overwhelmed by lava and calcined ashes, and of which the fertility is so extraordinary as to produce 80 and even 100 fold. In one particular instance, a single plant contained 40 ears, which yielded 3500 grains.—M. Le Dru specifies about twenty different sorts of volcanic products, which he remarked and collected in the course of his botanical excursions. The small globules of *chrysolite*, to which he alludes, are probably *olivine*, since he says that they are of a greenish yellow, and were found in a compact and blackish grey lava.—M. *Advenier* having been prematurely carried off by death, we have to regret that his memoir on the geology of Teneriffe, which is said to contain many valuable observations, still remains unpublished.

While accompanying the author in his botanical rambles, we were forcibly struck with the ensuing passage, which at once bespeaks the French manner and marks the futility of human wishes;

these islands with the continent of Africa, M. *Sonnini* evidently leans to the sentiments of *Golberry*, whom he quotes in the most respectful style.

As it was found impossible to refit the *Belle Angélique*, a reduced number of her crew proceeded on the expedition, on the 15th of March, in a brig of 200 tons, which the French consul purchased for their accommodation. M. Le Dru very sagely asks, *en passant*, why nature did not place the wretched inhabitants of the north in the tropical seas? If, by this query, he means to impeach the present arrangement of things, it may suffice to answer that the Laplander, like others of his species, is so constituted that he may roam over the world, or fondly linger among his native mountains; that we are the children of associations and habits; that the bear-hunter of Kamtschatka would pine and languish under the perpetual spring of happier climates; and that the principle of attachment to soil not only keeps in check our wandering propensities, but preserves a commodious distribution of population over every habitable portion of the earth.

The hostility of the Saw-fish to the Fin-fish has often been remarked by mariners; and the present author saw it exemplified in a furious combat, off the shore of Trinidad: but he closes his animated description so abruptly, that we know not which of these terrible animals prevailed.

An entire chapter, with the exception of the first paragraph, is occupied with recounting the *uncourteous* reception which Captain *Baudin* and his associated naturalists experienced from the English General Picton, who then commanded at Trinidad, and who persisted in his refusal to let them remain on the island. M. *Sonnini*, therefore, collects scraps of information relative to this island chiefly from Mr. M'Callum's publication, which we noticed some time ago, and from the accounts of the lake of mineral pitch, inserted in the Philosophical and Linnean Transactions. In the course of his annotations on the native animals, he very unexpectedly presents us with an excellent (figure of speech called a) *bull*. — 'It appears to me more reasonable,' he says, 'and at the same time more conformable to the grand views of nature, to suppose that, in the immensity of her productions, she has *exhausted* every imaginable form and feature, and unfolded to our eyes all the proofs of her *inexhaustible* fecundity.'

Having shaped their course for St. Thomas, the voyagers, passing the north-west of Ste. Croix, observed a shark, (*Squalus Carcharias*,) about ten feet in length, swimming on the surface of the water, and near the vessel. They immediately threw into the sea a strong hook, concealed under a lump of hog's lard, and attached to an iron chain, connected with a long rope which was fixed to the vessel. The creature instantly darted at the line, and nibbling at it, and retiring, and returning to it repeatedly, at length received the hook into his upper jaw, which it pierced throughout.

'Then you might have seen the shark bend and writhe in every direction, and, by its obstinate resistance, stretch the rope so violently that six men could with difficulty pull on board this enormous fish. Terrible, and furious in its convulsive movements, it struck the deck with its nervous tail, and overset or broke every object within its reach. All of us fled from its reach — twenty blows of a handspike scarcely sufficed to reduce its strength, and could not wholly deprive it of life. The sailors suspended it to a yard; and the zoologist and surgeon of the expedition flayed it for the purpose of preserving the skin. They examined its gape, its jaws, armed with six rows of triangular and cutting teeth, its viscera, &c.; the animal still breathed; its severed portions palpitated under the scalpel; and at each incision, the irritability of the muscular flesh re-acted under the steel, like an elastic ball.'

Let us turn from this scene of cruelty to a more tranquil and soothing picture, exhibited by the Moravian brethren, who possess two establishments on the isle of St. Thomas:

'It is here that these Christians divide their time between the practice of domestic duties, agriculture, and the instruction of the negroes. The latter, every Sunday, at a stated hour, resort from all the quarters of the island, to listen to the paternal admonitions which these good brethren address to them, with that affecting simplicity which characterizes the morality of the gospel. The most profound silence reigns in the audience; you would suppose that you heard *Vincent-de-Paul*, *Fenélon*, or *Brydaine*, speaking the language of charity to the unfortunate inhabitants of some village in France, and pouring the consolations of religion into their hearts, broken with misery. These poor slaves, affected and softened by the accents of a minister of peace, who in some measure shares their sorrows, feel the chains of tyranny less heavy; they cherish and they adore a religion which teaches them that all men are brethren; that a God exists who is the avenger of the oppressed, and the enemy of oppressors: the hope of future happiness, that destined recompence of virtue, makes them more submissive to their masters, more active in labour, and more patient under sufferings.

'These Africans attach extreme importance to the honour of being admitted into these religious assemblies; and they dread exclusion from them, as a punishment for misconduct, more than the rigorous chastisements of the overseer. Some of them have even been known to die of grief, because they laboured under a temporary interdict from church. St. Thomas has not more virtuous citizens, more upright magistrates, more useful priests, more laborious colonists, than these Moravians. The colony is indebted to them for its tranquillity.'

The disastrous fires, which, since the author's return to Europe, have nearly ruined this once flourishing settlement, render it unnecessary to particularize the statements of its former resources and prosperity. The political revolutions, to which the other Danish West India islands have been lately subjected, have likewise affected all prior calculations concerning their trade and economical produce: but their natural history presents a more permanent topic of discussion, although M. Le Dru has sketched it in a very rapid and cursory manner. — In the mean time, however, the travellers had so augmented their collections, that the French agent at St. Thomas purchased an English prize of 400 tons, for the farther prosecution of the expedition. Thus freshly equipped, the Captain and his party steered their course to Porto Rico.

The author's botanical researches seem to have been very delightfully relieved, and sometimes, we suspect, interrupted, by his romantic admiration of a *Dona Francisca*; who, in course, is all beauty and perfection, and the theme of greater eulogy and eloquence than all the charms of equinoctial Flora, combined. From these ecstatic reveries, which a Frenchman publishes to the world without reserve, we are forthwith dragged into a maze of dry geographical and topographical detail; and next into the history of an unsuccessful attempt on Porto Rico, by the English troops, under the order of General *Raphael Albercombrie*: meaning, no doubt, the late Sir Ralph Abercrombie.

Porto Rico is exposed to the east wind, which constantly blows between the tropics, from eight o'clock in the morning till five in the evening. The south and west winds bring along with them such abundant rains, especially from August to January, as to inundate the country, and diffuse a general and often sickly humidity through the atmosphere. Butchers' meat is quickly tainted; and the carcase of a horse or an ox, if exposed to the open air, is in four days completely reduced to shreds, and devoured by thousands of worms and insects.

The catalogue of the natural productions of Porto Rico is rather voluminous, and illustrated by M. *Sonnini's* annotations: but a perusal of it must prove very irksome, except to professed students of exotic zoology and botany, and scarcely belongs to the cognizance of English critics.

The particulars of the return of the expedition to France are related in a short chapter, and blended with a few apostrophes to *Francisca*, and a quotation from *St. Pierre* on the luminous appearance of the sea during the night. A subjoined note refers to some of the principal writers who have treated of this phænomenon.

In spite of all the hardships which the adventurous naturalists endured by sea and land, they conveyed in safety to France, and deposited within the precincts of the National Museum, 450 stuffed birds, 4000 butterflies and other insects, 200 shells, 7 cases of crabs, madrepores, sea-urchins, asteriæ, &c. 200 specimens of wood, 1 case of minerals from St. Thomas, 4 cases of the seeds of nearly 400 different species of plants, 8000 dried plants, belonging to 900 species, and 207 cases, or tubs, containing 800 living plants and shrubs, being samples of 350 species. If the author's narrative, therefore, in respect of diversity and liveliness of interest, be found wanting, let the above *bill of lading* cover, like charity, a multitude of sins.

ART. VIII. *Essai sur le Système Militaire de Bonaparte*, &c, *i. e.* An Essay on the Military System of Bonaparte, followed by a short Notice of the French Revolution, and the Coronation of his Corsican Majesty. By C. H. S. a Russian Staff Officer. 8vo. pp. 151. 7s. Dulau and Co. London.

THE principles of French tactics have been a subject of serious inquiry and reflection to many among the thinking part of mankind, during the last fifteen years. We have seen armies intrusted to young leaders, and not always superior in number to their antagonists, destroying the proudest military establishments of Europe; and succeeding, in the course of a few months, in over-running tracts of country, which, according to former modes of warfare, would for years have furnished occupation to an invading enemy. The vanquished of the present day, like those of other ages, are abundantly ready to account for their failures by the influence of bribery and preponderating numbers: but, howsoever dextrous the French may be in diplomatic intrigue, or prodigal of the lives of their men, we must carry our researches somewhat farther before we can be confident of having arrived at a satisfactory explanation of their successes. Since our triumphs in Portugal, an English reader may undertake an inquiry of this nature with a greater stock of composure than when a hundred thousand Frenchmen were encamped at Boulogne, and our disasters in Flanders and in Holland were fresh in our recollection. Recent events have shewn that, against troops who will stand their ground so firmly as British soldiers maintain it, the French plan of impetuous assault is exerted in vain, and may be made to turn

discomfiture of the assailants; while the example of
has proved that, whenever a people are resolute in con-
g their resistance, all the chicanery of diplomatic intrigue,
l the efforts of military skill, will be insufficient to ac-
ish their reduction under a detested yoke.

author of the Essay before us proposes to explain the
y system of *Bonaparte*, and to shew his enemies how
ay imitate and improve on it. He is not less zealous for
lependence of Europe than the author of the celebrated
on the "Characters of European Armies*;" and, al-
, like that writer, he composes with too much haste and
ttle arrangement, he will be found to have suggested
which it is important for *Bonaparte*'s opponents to know
practice. He begins by briefly recapitulating the chief
vements which the revolutionary war introduced into the
service; such as the multiplication of light troops, a
ion in the amount of baggage and of heavy artillery,
sed celerity in the management of field-pieces, the suppres-
f the use of horses for the subordinate infantry-officers,
stly, a method of extracting subsistence from the surround-
untry, without the necessity of establishing magazines.
ese alterations co-operate to one end, — to accelerate ra-
of movement; and when we also take into the account
st supply of men afforded by the population of France
s dependencies, we cannot fail to be struck with the re-
ble conformity between the nature of the system and the
and impetuous character of *Bonaparte*. After a few
inary observations, the Essayist remarks that his object
en to address himself to military readers, and in particu-
staff-officers; who, he flatters himself, will rise from the
l of his work with a conviction that the great aim of
labours should be to study the causes of the general
nents passing before their eyes, and to be able to render,
hour of the day, a distinct account of the position and
th of the respective corps of the army to which they be-
The Essay is divided into several parts, of which the
pal are a narrative of the campaign of 1805, and a dis-
on on the French mode of marching through a country,
f fighting pitched battles. To these the author has ad-
bservations on the struggle in Spain, on the personal cha-
of *Bonaparte*, and on the total loss of popularity which
en the consequence of his recent violence and tyranny.
amphlet will supply us with several extracts of consider-

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* See Review, Vol. xlviii. N. S. p. 203.

able length and interest, and we shall begin by translating for our readers the account of the campaign of 1805.

'I will not enter at large into the early campaigns of *Bonaparte*; they were a mere experiment of the efficacy of his military system, which was then greatly behind the perfection which it afterward attained. It was in the campaign of 1805 that he began to make war on a grand scale; it was then that he first gave a practical application of the system created during the previous wars of the Revolution, and which was singularly adapted to his enterprizing and destructive powers of mind. This system belongs exclusively to the present age; no record attests its former existence; and it is known only by its terrible results. What can more surpass all former example, than to see French armies accomplish in the course of a few weeks those operations which in other times would have required years, or rather ages: to see them regularly vanquish, in close action, well disciplined armies of superior number; and, which is still more strange, to see a body of one hundred thousand men execute a march through an enemy's country in the same manner in which this could formerly have been effected by a single regiment?

'In September 1805, two hundred thousand Frenchmen pass the Rhine on different points. They advance in separate bodies, but in concert, and all aim at the same object. Maps, carefully prepared in time of peace, are in the hands of the staff-officers; and every arrangement is made for the security and expedition of the march. Each officer gives the soldier an example of supporting fatigue and privation; the Generals ride at the head of their divisions; and the Captains of infantry proceed on foot at the head of their companies. The progress of the columns is never stopped, as in other armies, by waiting for convoys of provisions. Castles, abbeys, farm-houses, the dwelling of the citizen, and even the humble cottage, compose the magazines of a French army. Its daily encampments are chosen with a view as well to subsistence as to military security. A column makes a halt to rest for a few hours; the time is too short to expose them to suffer from the exhaustion of local resources, and they repeat to morrow what they have done to day. It is thus that in a few days they reach the banks of the Danube: but the rapidity of the advance has not given time for the pontoons to come up; they are at a distance in the rear; how then is the river to be passed? The foresight of their commanders had sent forwards flying parties, with orders to pursue the enemy without intermission; and they follow them up so closely as not to leave time for the destruction of the bridges; the Danube is therefore crossed with ease. Here, however, the French were on the point of experiencing a great disaster, in consequence, not of the movements of their stupefied enemy, but of the peculiar nature of their plan of march. To surround Ulm, it was necessary to concentrate their troops; and numerous columns, advancing in the same direction, find themselves collected within a narrow district. One hundred thousand men, fatigued by long marches and possessed of no stock of provisions, are confined within a tract, the supplies of which are consumed in the course of a few hours.

To add to their embarrassments, the rains descend in torrents, and, continuing without interruption for several days, the country is inundated, and the roads become execrable. The soldiers march in the mud, and pass the night in water; they seem ready to die with hunger and want; they are discouraged, and murmur. What can the commander do? Proclamations are read at the head of the different columns, praising and flattering the army, passing the highest encomiums on its steadiness, and asserting that the enemy is on the eve of being surrounded, so that a few moments more will make the army reap the fruit of its fatigues and privations. These addresses are effectual in tranquillizing the minds of the soldiers: but what are they to do for food? they are on the point of falling down from faintness, when, at the critical moment, supplies arrive. Active and intelligent officers had been sent to the neighbouring districts, and had succeeded, by dint of money and threats, in collecting provisions, and in getting them conveyed in the peasant's carts to the army. The call of hunger once satisfied, nothing remains that can retard the advance of the French; horse-artillery being indispensible to their operations, it must be brought forwards, notwithstanding the rain which still continues; if the horses sink under the draught, their place is occupied by soldiers. The army is impatient for victory, but still more impatient to put an end to its distress, and the capture of Ulm will completely change its condition. Ulm falls, and 60,000 Austrians are either taken, destroyed, or dispersed.

'After a short repose at Ulm, and Augsburgh, the French resume their march with new ardour. The progress through Bavaria is open and free; the inhabitants are ordered to supply the soldiers; and Munich is made to resemble an immense inn. Strong van-guards precede the main body, and attack the rear of the Austrians wherever they find it. Neither the darkness of night nor strength of position, nor the intervention of rivers, can stop the audacity of the French. Such incessant attacks confuse the Austrian Generals, who, having given up all thoughts of fighting, neglect even the means of securing their retreat. Their minds are occupied with the preservation of their baggage, and they make no attempt to break up the roads. The French find bridges on all the rivers. The Iser, the Inn, the Salza, and the Ems, prove fruitless barriers; and *Bonaparte* enters Vienna without having been under the necessity of doing more than make rapid marches, and fight actions of advanced posts.

'At last the Russian army, so much vaunted, comes in sight of the French. *Bonaparte* suspends his march, and encamps. It was the end of November, yet soldiers, officers, and Generals, all sleep in the open air. Had the Prussians then come forwards, *Bonaparte* would have been in the greatest danger: but he amused them with money; and never was money more usefully expended.

'*Battle of Austerlitz.* The allied army amounted to one hundred and six thousand men, of whom twenty thousand were Austrians; the French were considerably inferior, not exceeding eighty thousand men. *Bonaparte*, to increase the confidence of the Russians, made a feint of retreating before them; his object being also to put them in a bad position. Alexander was too confident of success to retard movements; he followed the French without hesitation, and pitched his camp on the ground which *Bonaparte* had surveyed and studied. This was exactly what the Corsican wished; Alexander shall advance no farther. *Bonaparte* thinks not of retiring to rest, but passes the whole night in reconnoitring the enemy, and in making his final dispositions. Pickets of light horse, assisted by a faint moonlight, are employed in riding along the Russian line, keeping as near to it as possible, and headed by officers who are accustomed to such service, and full of activity and quickness. They collect the most useful information on the position of the enemy; and *Bonaparte*, anxious to verify the reports in person, keeps in motion during the whole night. He is accompanied by his best Generals; all the information required is obtained; and the arrangements for the battle are made on the surest foundation. The scene of action is laid out two miles in front of the French encampment; the stations to be occupied by the respective divisions are marked with precision on the spot; the Marshals are present, and receive the clearest instructions.—It was necessary to have recourse to an expedient to counteract the inferiority of numbers. The custom, on a soldier's being severely wounded, is that two of his comrades carry him out of the ranks: and, as fear is very ready to put on the garb of humanity, these men are not in general prompt in resuming their station. An order was now issued, forbidding any man to leave the line on pretext of carrying off the wounded; it was punctually enforced; and it proved in its effect equivalent to a large reinforcement.

'An engagement with such great numbers afforded an opportunity of putting in execution the extensive manœuvres which were practised at the camp of Boulogne. To go through them well requires not only coolness but silence; accordingly, the French soldiers were forbidden to cry out "*forwards*," as was usual with them in action; and the consequence was that the only noise heard in the battle consisted in firing, and in the voice of the commanding officers. On the 2d. of December, the French moved from their camp before daylight; each column advancing, under its Marshal, to the spot marked out on the preceding day for its position. A mist concealed their movements till eight o'clock, when the sun shone forth, and showed to the astonished Russians the French army arrayed in order of battle. Ninety battalions of French infantry, ranged in two lines, to the right and in face of the great road leading from Brunn to Weschau, formed an acute angle with the road. The extremity of the angle was an eminence of considerable height, which commanded the road; this eminence was guarded by a strong detachment of infantry, and by heavy artillery which prevented the advance of the Russians along the road, and covered at the same time the left wing of the French under *Lasnes*. His corps was supported also by the whole of the heavy cavalry, namely, eleven regiment of cuirassiers and two of carabineers, under the orders of *Murat*. *Bernadotte* commanded the centre, composed almost entirely of infantry, and *Soult* had charge of the right wing stretching towards Brunn. Above one hundred pieces of cannon were placed throughout the line. *Bonaparte*, acting as Commander in chief, and accompanied by *Berthier*, and his whole staff, had taken his station in the rear of the centre at the head of the reserve, which consisted of twenty picked battalions, three or four regiments of horse, and twenty-five pieces of light artillery. So judiciously were the French drawn up, that, without leaving any weak point, their line was made to extend to an equal length with that of their more numerous antagonists.

'The first cannon was fired on the French right. This was the signal for battle; the Russians were not slow in returning it; and the fire soon became general. The Russian artillery was immense, and well served, and the number of field-pieces on both sides amounted to nearly three hundred. These poured forth grape-shot, while the infantry kept up a rolling fire of musquetry along the whole line. The earth seemed to shake, and the sky to be in flames. Numbers fell on both sides during three hours, a space which passed without either army gaining any advantage over its opponent. At the expiration of that time, Alexander's horse-guards made a charge on the centre of the French army, broke the line, rode over a regiment of infantry, and bore off its standard. This impetuous charge, to have been made productive of success, should have been immediately sustained by farther movements:—*it was not*; and that which might have led to victory became a cause of defeat. *Bonaparte* was not far off, and detached directly two squadrons of his guard, supported by grenadiers, under his aid-de-camp *Rapp*, to fall on the victorious but confused Russians. Never was a charge more impetuous or more decisive; the Russians are forced to give way, and strive in vain to rally; the French allow them no time, but cut them down or make them prisoners with incredible celerity. The French infantry, recovered from their momentary panic, are impatient to charge; and *Bonaparte* now perceives that the time is arrived for a decisive manœuvre. His whole guard is drawn forth in line to strike terror into the enemy; the artillery along their front, occupying a rising ground, begins to play on the Russian line, while its fire, by its elevation, passes over the French. He restrains the impatience of his cavalry, but sends forwards a division of his infantry of reserve, in quick time, with orders to fire and charge. Meanwhile *Bernadotte* profits of the favourable moment by making his line advance, change their front, and take the Russian centre in flank, at the moment when it was disordered by the fire of artillery from the French guards, and attacked in front by the infantry of reserve. This movement proved decisive; the Russian centre was broken, cut down, and routed; it was impossible to rally it; and the most desperate efforts of individual valour proved unavailing.

'The right wing of the Russians had been equally unfortunate; the French cuirassiers had made their charge at a favourable moment, and had borne down the opposing infantry:—but, on the left, things were going on very differently. From the beginning of the battle, Marshal *Soult* had found the greatest difficulty in maintaining his position, and would undoubtedly have been routed had it not been for the success of the French in the centre. That success took place at noon; but the Russian left continued the action long afterward with firmness and activity, and never yielded, till the French, advancing from the centre, attacked them in front and flank. Their artillery-men were literally cut to pieces on their cannon; and as the Russian line had not given way till it was in great disorder throughout, the massacre was frightful. Night alone put a period to these scenes of horror. Incredible as it may appear, the loss of the allies, including several thousand Austrians, amounted, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, to fifty thousand men; baggage, ammunition, standards, and more than one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon fell into the hands of the victors; whose loss consisted in thirteen thousand killed and wounded.'

After having read this exposition of the fatal success of French tactics, we are naturally led to ask, whether methods might not be employed against them with success. The writer of the essay expresses himself on this important point in a very encouraging manner, since he believes it to be possible for the opponents of the French to do in many respects not only as well but better. The French name is universally odious beyond their own frontiers; and the excesses which they committed in Germany raised the popular indignation to a height which might have proved fatal to them in the event of being obliged to retreat. Now the current of popular feeling would be in favour of the enemies of the French, and great advantage might be derived from it in case of their acting offensively. 'Defensive warfare,' says this author, 'is not the way to oppose a man like *Bonaparte*; his audacity should be met by still greater audacity. Frederic acquired his reputation not merely by a successful resistance to superior forces, but by acting offensively in the midst even of disaster; the campaigns of *Suwarrow* are a model for this kind of warfare.' The adoption of an offensive plan of operations has often, we are aware, been recommended to the antagonists of the French; but while we subscribe to the fundamental position, that it is the only method of obtaining great success, we cannot help adding that the exertion of consummate judgment is as necessary to prevent disaster in this as in the defensive system. *Beaulieu* acted offensively in Piedmont, and lost the whole country in a few weeks. *Wurmser* advanced to the relief of Mantua with a fine army: but having committed the error of dividing it, for the sake of giving scope to his offensive operations, the smaller division was destroyed, and the larger obliged to retreat. A few months afterward, *Alvinzi* found himself sufficiently strong to assume the offensive: but, having committed the same error of dividing his force, one part, under his own command, was totally defeated at Rivoli; while the other part, under *Provera*, which had boldly advanced to the walls of Mantua, was forced to lay down its arms. The Prussians, in 1806, began by offensive operations: but not retreating in time they allowed the French to get behind them, and to fight them in a position in which the loss of a battle involved the ruin of their whole army. All these are examples of the disasters which originate from offensive operations injudiciously conducted. On the other hand, the brilliant victories of *Clairfait* in 1795, and the almost uninterrupted triumphs of *Suwarrow*. are examples of the signal success with which a distinguished commander may conduct offensive war against the French. The talents of these great men suggest to us, likewise, the distinction with which a recommendation of their system should be accompanied. To extol the offensive plan without any qualification would seem to imply that there is something in the mere adoption of it which leads to success; whereas it should never be forgotten that it requires the highest degree of combination, activity, and foresight. With these qualities, offensive war may be justly expected to lead to the happiest results; and, without these, we may be perfectly assured that neither it nor any other kind of operations will be effectual against such an enemy as the French. Of the necessity of this qualification, we shall be more fully convinced, after having investigated, from the essay before us, the causes of the victories of our Gallic neighbours. The author very properly comprises them under two heads, 'rapidity of movements and unity of operation.'

'*Rapidity of movement.* — In the wars carried on in Germany by *Bonaparte*, he has always acted on the offensive; an advantage which has formed one of the principal causes of his success. The offensive is of inestimable utility to him who takes the field with numerous and well-appointed armies, and gives them from the outset an impelling power by the force of his own genius. When *Bonaparte* enters on a campaign, the best maps are distributed to his staff-officers, and he has a number of spies and traitors in his pay; the art of tampering with a province or a kingdom is extremely well known to him; and, when occasion calls, the French Generals are not backward in lending themselves to it. The equipage of a French army consists in a good train of field-pieces, and a stock of ammunition. Their firelocks must be in the best condition; and when the soldier is furnished with two pairs of shoes and two days' provisions, he is considered as fit to march; — the heavy cannon follow at a distance. As to discipline, all that is required is to fire and march well, and this progress is soon made by the recruits, with the assistance of some experienced soldiers dispersed throughout the companies The officers are thoroughly acquainted with their duty, and most of the Generals have had twenty years' practice.

'A large French army is divided, on taking the field, into several corps of twenty or twenty-five thousand men, each commanded by a Marshal. *Bonaparte* acts as Captain-general; while *Berthier*, in the capacity of head of the staff, receives his orders and transmits them to the different corps. The plan of action is known only to *Berthier*, and at times to the Marshals; so that an enemy has, under this system, very little opportunity of penetrating into military secrets, The army begins its march in several columns. In addition to the general instructions, the business of the day is explained to each Marshal, and his corps advances as if it marched alone, without regarding whether it forms the right wing or the left. Its specific duty is to occupy, after a march of several hours, a position in conformity to the general plan of encampment. When arrived at this position, its commander allots a station to each division. If the weather be wet, and no attack is apprehended, the troops are generally put into cantonments, in such a way as to share the provisions of the inhabitants, whose stores have been calculated before hand: but when the case requires it, the troops, with the exception of the cavalry, sleep in the open air, whatever be the state of the weather. A corps is thus stationed along the bank of a river, at the base of a mountain, around a wood, &c. A strong guard is kept, sentinels being posted in all directions, and patroles being in movement throughout the night. The Generals are accustomed to make a private inspection of the encampment. A detachment of the rank and file of each company repairs to the neighbouring farms or village to fetch straw, planks, and whatever is required for their nocturnal accommodation. Others are employed in felling trees, and cutting wood, to serve either for shelter or for firing. If the spot and the state of the weather be favourable, the soldiers will contrive to make a tolerable lodging. Frenchmen are clever in this way; every one is in motion; some driving stakes, others laying planks; and others lighting fires in expectation of the speedy arrival of provisions. If cattle have been found in the neighbourhood, they are distributed in due proportions: but if they cannot be obtained, the soldiers dispatched in quest of animal food take care not to return empty-handed. They endeavour to lay hold of calves, of pigs, or of sheep; they make a formidable pursuit of the poultry; and bread and vegetables do not escape them. The inhabitants must be clever indeed to succeed in concealing their wine; and that country must be poor beyond description from which a French soldier does not find means to extract a supply of some kind or another. After having obtained provisions, he sleeps soundly, and resumes the march next morning in great spirits, without suffering any disquietude from his precarious prospect of subsistence. If the country be poor and uncomfortable, he advances with double zeal, in order that he may get out of it; and if it be absolutely barren, he lives on the bread which is laid up in his knapsack.

' During the course of a march, conducted with such celerity, it is evident that a regular commissariat can be of little avail: but, when the enemy has collected in strength, and obliged the French army to stop its march, and concentrate itself within a limited position, the officers of the commissariat are in full employment, and the powerful system of requisition extends itself around. Provisions of all kinds are brought into the depôts, and distributed to the men in regular proportions. If the army be designed to remain long on the spot, it is common to pay the inhabitants for what they bring; a sure method of keeping up the supply. All this may be done without draining the military chest, the contributions imposed on the country at large affording a sufficient fund; a kind of receipt and payment with which the

French are perfectly familiar. When the soldiers are thus relieved from the trouble of collecting provisions, their Generals take care to give them employment of another kind, by marches, counter-marches, reconnoiterings, skirmishes, and false attacks. *Bonaparte* makes it a rule to keep them in perpetual movement till the time arrives for a general action.

'*Unity of operation.* If the French create astonishment by the rapidity of their marches, the method and regularity which govern their military proceedings are equally calculated to claim admiration. The commander in chief transmits, as we have already seen, his orders to the head of the staff, through whom they are in turn communicated to the Marshals. The head of the staff is aided by several other Generals; who, in conjunction with a number of officers of all ranks, compose the *Etat major.* This *Etat major* is the sole centre of movement, and follows the Commander in chief during the whole campaign. It is the depository of all reports of consequence, and the channel of transmission for all orders. Each *corps* of the army has, moreover, its particular *Etat major*, composed of a number of officers called assistants, (*adjoints*,) who are subordinate to a General of Division acting in the capacity of head of their staff. There is also a third kind of *Etat Major;* namely, that of each division, the plan of which is similar to the preceding. From the moment when an army takes the field, the head of the staff in each *corps* keeps an exact journal of the operations, composing it from the journals of the *Etats Majors* of divisions. This MS. forms a narrative of the difficulties which have occurred, of the advantages obtained, the losses, exploits, &c., with brief notices of the actual condition of the *corps*, its position, and the extent and nature of the ground on which it stands. An extract from this journal, made daily in the clearest and most simple form, is intrusted to an officer to be taken to head-quarters, who repairs thither with all diligence, and with orders to deliver it to no one except the Commander in chief, or the head of the staff. Each *corps* sending its extract at the same hour, the different reports are read and compared by the head of the staff, and the officers who bring them are expected to answer promptly to all inquiries, The head of the staff is thus in possession of the most accurate information; aud if any particular corps has been forced to take a station unsuitable to the general plan, the deviation is corrected by the arrangements for the next day, which are drawn up immediately on the arrival at head-quarters of the officers who carry the reports, and are dispatched in return through their hands. In addition to these daily communications, a correct return is forwarded every third day of the number of men fit for action, of those who are sick, wounded, or left behind for garrisons, correspondence, the guard of prisoners, &c. *Bonaparte* lays great stress on this return, and makes his Generals personally responsible for it.

'As long as the different corps of an army remain contiguous, the means of communication are easy, and unity will prevail in the operations: but even when a corps is at a considerable distance, a correspodence with the general staff is still kept up. The commanding officer of the corps receives at parting the most positive instructions from the Commander in chief: — instructions not to make attempts and calculate contingencies, but to accomplish the object in view at whatever cost. In pursuance of these orders, he puts in practice every effort that artifice can suggest, or that audacity can execute; the enemy gives way under these repeated exertions; and the French persist in accomplishing their point, though they sacrifice three fourths of their number. The loss is heavy, but the object is material, when viewed in connection with the general manœuvres of the army. The detached corps, were it a hundred miles from head-quarters, continues to transmit a report every twenty-four hours; and though the distance is great, the communication is generally open, and the country cleared of the enemy, in consequence of the different corps having acted in concert. The post-offices in an invaded country enjoy a special protection; and officers travelling as couriers find in all directions chaises, horses, and even escorts. When the distance is very considerable, the number of officers is increased, and some are going out while others are returning; the great point being to keep up an active and uninterrupted correspondence. In the campaign of 1805, the second corps was in Styria, while the head quarters were in Moravia; yet they communicated three or four times in a week. *Massena's* army was at the distance of several hundred miles from head-quarters: but he received the news of the victory of Austerlitz three days after it happened.

' On thus analyzing the system of the French, we find that their rules of division and subdivision are extremely simple. From the mere battalion of infantry to the union of the whole mass, the intermediate corps increase in a regular progression, and the nature of the service is the same. *Bonaparte*'s opponents have committed the dangerous error of believing that to make a good staff-officer requires a thorough mathematical education; *he* does not go so far, but is satisfied to employ men who possess activity and quickness, together with a practical acquaintance with war. These men are capable of reconnoitering at the head of a detachment of horse, and of directing the march of a column of infantry. The requisites are, exactness of local knowlege, the possession of good maps, precision in making reports, and an accurate acquaintance with the strength and character of the force placed under their orders. All this may be possessed by a General who never constructed a perpendicular in his life; — not that the French are deficient in intelligent engineers: but the latter are entirely distinct from the *Etat Major*. If arrangements must be made for the passage of a river or the attack of an entrenched camp, the Marshal issues orders to the Commandant of engineers, who is responsible for the activity of his subordinates; and staff-officers are expected to do nothing more in such an operation than to watch and report its progress. They are never to be seen scouring the country, during the advance of the army, with a compass in their hands, or drawing plans of positions, which the quickness of movements would not admit. An army always on march has no time to dig entrenchments. *Bonaparte*, on advancing into Germany, left in the rear a number of his engineers, to sketch maps, and to direct the fortification of certain posts which might be important in regard to the arrival of convoys, or useful in covering a retreat. A clear distinction thus prevails between the staff-officer and the engineer; — a distinction which is judiciously established in the French service, but is unfortunately unknown in that of their antagonists.'

Notwithstanding the merit which the essayist allows to the French troops, and the credit which he gives to *Bonaparte* as the master-workman in the direction of this powerful engine, we meet, in various passages, with strong proofs of his hatred of the usurper. After an acknowlegement of his extraordinary vigilance, activity, and address, we are reminded that he found armies and Generals ready formed to his hand, and that his opponents have usually been weak and ignorant men. The writer dwells with evident satisfaction on those suspensions of reason to which *Bonaparte* has been subject on critical emergencies, as in the first part of the battle of Marengo, and the still more awful struggle at Asperne. On both occasions, he seemed to be forsaken by his faculties, and the safety of his army was due to the exertions of others. We are more disposed, however, to look for his eventual fall in the sure though slowly operating effects of his tyranny in exciting universal discontent; and we acquit the author of exaggeration, when he says that not a single human being now exists who loves this ruler, nor a people who are not impatient of his yoke. We have no hesitation in believing that the boasted attachment of the French people is to be found only in the papers paid by his ministers, and that this mighty Emperor drives through Paris in his equipage without a single acclamation. His subjects have long been indifferent to military successes, and would account the conquest of the world too dearly purchased by a protracted submission to taxes and conscriptions; yet, whatever be the extent of popular discontent, his enemies must not rely on it for their success in war. The machine has gone on too long to be suddenly suspended; and those who mean to enter the lists with him in the field must endeavour to rival him in military proficiency. They must acquire the art of penetrating with rapidity through tracts of country, and of giving, in the day of battle, not only boldness but concert to their operations. The fundamental part of the other armies of Europe, by which we mean the courage and attachment of the soldiery, is equal to that of the French; it is in officers that the unhappy inferiority exists. Were the education and promotion of officers new-modelled throughout Europe, there could be little doubt, in the opinion of this writer, of the success of other nations against the French, even in general engagements; which, of late years, have been the chief scenes of disaster. We extract the passage in which he explains the French method of fighting pitched battles :

'In contemplating the success of *Bonaparte* in pitched engagements, we are led to inquire whether it can be owing to a particular order of battle unknown to his opponents: but, since the days of Frederic, this department of the military art seems to stand in no need of modification. That able tactician was induced to prefer the use of the oblique line because he was often inferior in number: but he well knew how to vary his manœuvres, and to present to the enemy a front either continuous or with intervals, according to the nature of the ground, and the strength of his army. His leading rule was to prefer that order of battle which gave the greatest scope to each description of his force.—How many Generals are incapable of applying this fundamentel principle, and perplex themselves in looking out for a field of battle; as if, instead of adapting their dispositions to the ground as they find it, the ground ought to be fitted expressly for the reception of the scientific arrangement which is pictured in their imaginations.—For some time the French followed the king of Prussia's plan in dispensing, whenever they chose, with technical rules. Like him, they knew how to make scientific knowlege subservient to the exertion of their characteristic vivacity, and to the display of their other aptitudes for war. Like him, they would have learned to vary their military dispositions according to the nature of the ground, but the constant incapacity of the hostile commanders has led them to confine themselves to one uniform plan. That plan consists in drawing up their army in two lines; in dividing it into three corps with intervals; and a reserve in the rear. Their cavalry is generally made to act in a mass on a single point. Of this Lord Wellington appears to be aware; and from his successful resistance, we are tempted to infer that *Massena*'s numerous squadrons are likely to be more hurtful to himself than to his antagonist.

'This method of the French has nothing extraordinary in it, nothing which gives it a decisive advantage. Is it, then, by any thing in their subsequent manœuvres that they succeed in defeating their enemies? Yet the art of moving troops in a day of battle is confined to three great evolutions,—changing front, collecting in masses, and resolving these masses into lines; and the manner of performing these evolutions is similar in all the great armies of Europe. It is therefore neither to new plans of drawing up an army, nor to any discovery in the art of manœuvring during action, that the French are indebted for their successes, but to the activity and the concert which prevail in their movements. However advantageously an army may be drawn up, or however favourable may be its position, victory is not to be obtained by its standing still and fighting on the spot, but by changing its ground at a particular moment, in the course of the engagement, for the purpose of taking a new station, and either turning the enemy or breaking his line. These are the only methods of deciding the issue of a general action; and in order to give success to such movements, both rapidity and concert are indespensible.

sible. The constitution of a French army ensures it a decided superiority in both of these respects. From the beginning of the action, the station of the Commander in chief is near a strong reserve behind the centre. From this point alone proceed all orders; from it an impulse, one and the same throughout, is communicated to the whole army. The Commander in chief is surrounded by a number of intelligent staff-officers, who are perfectly acquainted with the position of each respective corps. He watches the occurrence of a moment favourable to the execution of a great movement, such as we have seen at Austerlitz; and whenever that is arrived, he issues a verbal order to the surrounding officers, a part of whom set off immediately along the line, and transmit to the Lieutenant-Generals or Marshals the determination of the Commander in chief. When we consider the ability of French staff-officers to make a clear communication of the orders, the simplicity of the organization of the troops, and the experience of their Generals in manœuvring on a grand scale, we may safely take it for granted that the combination of so many advantages must give a great degree of expedition and of concert to the movement of the whole. In addition to these facilities for the execution, it is necessary to be dextrous in seizing the favourable moment for the attempt; and in this, also, the French are superior to their enemies.

'The battle of Marengo, unfavourable as it was to *Bonaparte*'s reputation, must have impressed him with the truth that it is scarcely ever a first movement that decides the fate of an action, but that victory will attend that commander who, after a battle has been obstinately contested for some time, finds means to bring forwards a considerable number of fresh troops. The success of a body of reserve under such circumstances is infallible, provided that its attacks be made on the occurrence of that disorder and fluctuation in the enemy's line which are inseparable from a long contested battle; and provided also that its advance is supported by a correspondent change in the movements of the main body. With this view, the French reserve is generally numerous, and composed of prime troops. Stationed in the rear of the centre, it draws closer to it as the action proceeds, for the purpose both of making it impenetrable and of being at hand to carry assistance to either of the wings. Meanwhile, the main body is solely occupied in firing; no regiment, whether infantry or cavalry, presumes to advance towards the enemy without receiving special directions; which are never given until the enemy, after the action has lasted sometime, derange their order of battle by a false manœuvre, or present, from whatever cause, a weak point. Then is the time for a French regiment to advance to the charge; it is then that fresh troops march forwards to sustain it; and that all efforts are directed to take advantage of the enemy's confusion. It is of little consequence that the corps is exposed in its advance to a double fire from the enemy; the fire may be destructive, but it will speedily be at an end by the rapidity of the French movements; for no sooner has a part of the French line advanced to attack their opponents, than their place is occupied by the reserve, who soon give employment to their antagonists in front. The column which has advanced has thus fully proved than in the passages relating to Spain and Portugal. Though the work was composed in the last year, and previously to *Massena*'s retreat to Santarem, it is written under the fullest impression of the necessity of the abandonment of Portugal by the French. The mere knowlege of Lord Wellington's system seems to have been sufficient to enable the discerning eye of this tactician to trace its ultimate effects on the French operations. After having bestowed on it the encomiums to which it is so well intitled, he makes a strong appeal to the English and the Spaniards, to weigh well the inexpressible advantages of nominating a Generalissimo, and of banishing all the national jealousies which might stand in the way of the appointment. In the present state of things, however, and the remoteness of the scenes of operation, he is led to dwell more particularly on the importance of making the province of Catalonia the object of a separate command, and of investing an able leader with exclusive powers to act throughout the whole of that quarter. The following passage explains his opinion of the causes which have retarded the progress of the French in the peninsula, and of the means by which they might still be driven out of it:

'The great object of the nations who resist *Bonaparte* should be to render unavailing the application of the recent improvements in the French system of warfare. This has been done in Spain, partly by the hostile disposition of the inhabitants, and partly by the uncultivated state of the country. The French armies have thus been deprived of the daily resources which they drew in other countries from the people, and have been reduced to the necessity of collecting provisions in magazines. One cause of their success, *rapidity of movement*, has consequently been lost; and by the too confident calculations of *Bonaparte*, they have divided their troops in such a manner as to prevent, in a great measure, the advantage of unity in their operations. *Massena* has been ordered to pour a mass of force into Portugal in the hope of overthrowing the English army, but he finds that he is opposed by neither a *Mack*, nor an Archduke *Charles*. Lord Wellington's able defence baffles the usurper's calculations, and absorbs the principal part of his troops, whose numbers are undergoing a rapid reduction from want of provisions and the effects of climate: meanwhile, the Spaniards have had a breathing time, and are continuing the struggle on the banks of the Ebro and the Tagus. It is in vain that *Massena* is invested with the most unlimited powers; Catalonia is too remote to be affected by this concentration of command in one chief. If the Spaniards are wise, they will lose no time in that quarter, but transport their disposable forces to Catalonia, before the French army, which has hitherto been merely an army of observation, becomes more considerable. It is by vigorous diversions in Catalonia that the siege of Cadiz might be raised, and *Massena* forced to retreat. Hitherto the Catalans, though superior in number to the

French, have carried on the war with only middling success. They have killed a number of Frenchmen, and have intercepted their convoys: but they have neither gained ground nor succeeded in taking possession of towns. To do this, their forces must be increased, and the orders must issue from one commander: — not that there would, on that account, be any necessity for changing the mode of operation, which should continue to be an incessant harassing of the French, without any attempt to act in mass, a method which suits only a regular army like the English. In Catalonia, the neighbourhood of the sea gives the Spaniards great advantages, in regard to provisions, over the French. They may rely with confidence on the arrival of supplies, while the French are exposed at all times to want. The inhabitants being entirely devoted to the Spanish cause, provisions might be disembarked along the coast, and intrusted to them for delivery to their countrymen in arms, who might thus advance with rapidity, and in full confidence of being supplied. An active warfare against the French, and a frequent interception of their convoys, would drive them closer together. The circle from which the French draw their provisions becoming daily more restricted, the ultimate issue must be either flight or surrender. The favourable results which we have witnessed in Portugal are owing to the nomination of a single commander: but Catalonia is too remote to be under his direction; and the alternative is to name another chief for that province. If, contrary to every hope, *Bonaparte* should succeed in his execrable attempt on Spain, the blame will not rest with the people but with the government. If we prevent the French troops from moving with rapidity, or from receiving their orders from a common centre, we deprive them of a large proportion of their fatal power. This would be one consequence of the nomination of an able Generalissimo; and a complete secresy in the plans, hitherto too much open to treacherous communication, would form another inestimable advantage of the measure.'

If we sufficiently attend to the stubborn impediments to the progress of the French in the peninsula, we shall have little difficulty in believing that *Bonaparte* would welcome a renewal of military operations on a grand scale in the north of Europe. The success which, as he calculates, might there follow his arms, would restore their eclipsed lustre, and strike new awe into the surrounding nations. It is evident, then, that the same reasons, which prompt him to seek a renewal of such conflicts, should make them be earnestly deprecated by every friend to the independence of Europe; and should lead us to hope that Russia will, as she undoubtedly may, assert her independence without engaging in war.

As a literary composition, the Essay before us is liable to several objections. Its tone is sometimes exaggerated; it abounds in repetitions and abrupt effusions; and it is not always free from contradictions. It is also greatly deficient in arrangement; and so hastily has it been put together, that the sentences belonging to one parapraph appear sometimes to have been allowed to run into another. As a display of tactical knowlege, however, it has a title to be described in very different terms; the perusal of it has afforded us much gratification; and we may safely promise the same pleasure to all military readers, or to those who, without being professional men, find an interest in the discussion of military topics.

Art. IX. *Traité de l'Education des Moutons,* &c. *i. e.* A Treatise on Breeding Sheep, to which are subjoined eight large Tables, shewing the Means, under common Management, of augmenting and ameliorating a Flock, into which only Rams of the pure Race have been introduced, &c. By M. Chambon De M—— of the Agricultural Society of the Department of the Upper Maine, and formerly chief Physician of the Armies, &c. 8vo. 2 vols. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 1l. 4s. sewed.

Of late years, particular attention has been paid in this country and on the continent to the wool-bearing animals, and various experiments have been made for the purpose of improving the carcase and the fineness of the fleece. The breeders of sheep in Great Britain have probably exerted themselves with more assiduity and success in ameliorating their flocks, than agriculturists in any other part of the world; and some of them have written treatises explanatory of their methods of proceeding, with the results: but we do not recollect to have seen in the English language a work so bulky, and so much detailed, on the management of a sheep-farm, as the French treatise now before us. The writer explains the motives which prompted him to the undertaking, and endeavours to justify the severity which he manifests in combating the doctrines of some *agronomists,* (if we may coin a word from the French,) or agricultural writers of considerable estimation. An apology for rectifying mistakes, however, needs not to be laboured; and when authors of note fall into errors, the very circumstance of their celebrity strongly enforces the necessity of their refutation. In England, where opinions of all kinds are combated with freedom, and generally with civility, philosophical discussion is not likely to generate an unphilosophical spirit: but, if we may credit the report of M. De M., science in France has not so much self-command and good breeding as with us; on the contrary, the French philosophers of the present day are depicted by him as 'irascible, intolerant, and vindictive.' Should this account be just, the author will do right to pray for something more than the *spirit of a lamb*, and to count on his being visited with a severity not inferior to that which he has exercised on others.

After all, however, when the quantity of information conveyed is various and useful, a writer will find his book patronized; and his success will recompense him very amply for all the petty carpings of bigotry and malevolence. Authors know this fact, and their prefatory fears and apprehensions are more frequently assumed than felt. We shall dismiss, therefore, all farther thought of M. De M.'s alarms of seeing a phalanx of French philosophers, '*irascible*, intolerant, and vindictive,' all drawn up in battle-array against him; and, without noticing the controversy, we shall take a rapid glance at his work: — we say rapid glance; because to follow him from chapter to chapter, and from section to section, through the numerous divisions and subdivisions of this treatise, would consume more time than we can spare, and produce an article more protracted than profitable. Enough to satisfy the curiosity of the reader we shall endeavour to supply; and beyond this point we shall not be very anxious to go, since in the breeding and management of sheep we have little to learn from a French army-physician, or even from a French farmer.

Having in the first chapter descanted on the utility of the wool-bearing animals, both in an agricultural and a commercial point of view, and reprobated the silly pride of the old *regime*, which condemned every attention to matters of trade and rural economy as unfashionable and degrading, M. De M. enters on his proposed subject by specifying the varieties that are observable in sheep, and by pointing out the marks by which the sheep of different countries are characterized. Of varieties, he notices four kinds; 1st, the tame sheep of Europe, which were originally wild; 2, the wild sheep of Africa; 3, those of Candia, with straight spiral horns; and 4, those of Angola, distinguished by a mane which hangs down below the neck, by short hair which covers the rest of the body, like a stag, and with a dew-lap under the throat, like an ox. Though, however, as a naturalist, he glances at the varieties of sheep which are to be found on the globe, he begs to have it understood that, in addressing himself to the cultivator or farmer, he intends to confine his attention to our domesticated sheep, and to the varieties which prevail among them. Here he distinguishes between the smooth and the curled-wooled sheep of the stationary flocks, as well as between those of the travelling or *transhumantes* of Italy, Spain, and of the canton of *La Crau*, and he concludes, from a reference to this custom of *transhumation*, as mentioned by Virgil, (see Geor. III. 340.) that it prevailed among antient nations.

Sheep are distinguished from each other, not only by their height or weight, but by their form; particularly by the shape of the head, by the horns, by the tail, by the colour of the fleece, and by the different qualities of the wool. M. DE M. devotes a section to each of these characters, and under the last head he institutes a comparison between the wool of the antients and that of modern Europe.—Of the wool of former days, he specifies that of Tarentum, which was at one time in the greatest estimation at Rome, being fine, long, smooth, and soft: next in value was that of Apulia; and lastly that of Laodicea. In the time of Columella, however, the Tarentine wool had lost its reputation, being supplanted by that which came from Cisalpine Gaul, and especially that of Altinum. "*Nunc Gallicæ pretiosiores habentur; earum præcipuè Altinates.*"

In the article on European wools, our British flocks are not overlooked: but the English reader will smile at the blunders which the French writer (like most of his countrymen) has committed in the transcription of proper names.

‘ The flocks of Spain mixed with the English breed, the rams of Barbary and of other climates coupled with English ewes, the climate, the kind of pasture, the mode of treatment, and the care and attention given to them by the commercial spirit of the people, conspire to establish and preserve in Great Britain different kinds of sheep, which, according to *Rolland*, are distinguished by their size, by their walk, by particular qualities, by the nature and by the fineness of the fleece. The English are in the habit of ascertaining, by the place to which the sheep belong, the relative prices, and the average quantity of wool produced. Some time will elapse before our declaimers (*discoureurs*) in agriculture will have attained the same degree of knowlege.

‘ Be this as it may, the most valuable English wool, according to Mills, is to be found in the counties of Gloucester, Hereford, *Shrop*, (Salop) and in the Isle of Wight. The sheep of the *cantons* of Warwick, Leicester, Lincoln, and Buckingham, are larger and better made than those of the above mentioned provinces; and their wool is longer and finer. Those of the county of York, being quite as large, carry fleeces more gross; and in general those of the northern provinces are long and coarse. I shall not farther follow Mills, nor his countryman Ellis, in the enumeration of places which furnish wool more or less fine, and in stating the uses to which it is applied: it will suffice to add here, that, if this kingdom obtains through the industry of its inhabitants immense wealth from her beautiful woollen manufactures, the other countries of Europe, and France in particular, could easily arrive at the same degree of prosperity, provided that the farmers would attend to the breeding of the fine-woolled race, and possessed capital to purchase them.’

It is commendable in this writer to aim at stimulating his countrymen to attempt a rivalry of the English, both in the beauty of their flocks and in the manufacture of woollen goods: but it is clear, from this extract, that M. DE M. is very little acquainted with the best varieties of the English breed, or with the experiments which of late years have been made with so much success, to obtain, by crosses with the Merino race, a breed of sheep which shall carry a better carcase than the Merinos, and at the same time yield fleeces equally fine. We are referred, in a subsequent section, on the different weight of fleeces taken from different kinds of sheep, to English works of the old date of 1758 and 1760; which reference clearly proves that the writer is not familiar with our latest works on the subject of wool-bearing animals, and has not seen Dr. Parry's ingenious essay on his Merino flock, in the "Communications to the Board of Agriculture."

Among the directions for improving the breed of sheep, attention in the choice of the ram and of the ewe is duly inculcated; and the question is discussed at some length, how far the nature and circumstance of particular districts contribute to the improvement of wool. The doctrine of M. *Lasteyrie* on this subject is combated; and M. DE M. rationally maintains that the nature of the climate, and of the soil on which sheep are depastured, must have some effect on the fleece.

Of the string of queries which follow, we can do little more than report the substance. The author inquires how far the choice of food, and the nature of the water which sheep drink, contribute to their growth and health, and influence the quality of the wool? Whether it be necessary that sheep should always live in the open air, in order to carry a good fleece? Whether the practice of the antients, who put a covering on their sheep, and after the act of shearing rubbed them over with an ointment *, helped to improve the wool? Whether the crossing of breeds, or of individuals originally of the same breed, but fed in different districts, will contribute to preserve or to ameliorate the qualities of the fleece? How far the age of the rams and breeding ewes has an effect on the wool? Whether it be best to pull the wool or to shear it? And what is the influence of the colour of the wool of the ram on the fleeces of the lambs which he begets?—In solving the last question, the antients and the moderns are agreed. Indeed, the power of the ram in transmitting his properties to his descendants is out of all dispute.

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* "*Tonsas recenter, eodem die, perungunt oleo et vino, non nemo admistâ cerâ albâ, et adipe suillo.*" Pliny.

'Columella's uncle has observed that an African ram being admitted to his ewes, the colour of the father passed to his descendants, and was preserved in the succeeding generation; *eæ* (oves) *primùm hirtos, sed paterni coloris agnos ediderunt; ex his rursus quicquid conceptum est, maternam molitiem paternum et avitum retulit colorem.*'

The experience of our agriculturists confirms the same truth; and hence the high price which is given for a ram, and even for the use of one for a season.

We are presented with a chapter on *wild sheep*, (*Moutons sauvages*,) followed by another on the peculiarities or singularities that are observable in this race of animals: among which the frequent production of monsters, and the terror of sheep at the sight of the wolf, are enumerated: but surely the latter subject becomes perfectly ludicrous when we are told, according to Oppian, that "*oves etiam mortuæ mortuum lupum extimescunt;*" and it is equally absurd to say that by putting the skin of a wolf on that of a sheep, the wool of the latter will fall off. M. DE M. adverts to the marks by which the age and health of sheep may be known, gives rules for their purchase, for forming flocks, and for managing them through all the seasons of the year. Even the qualities requisite in the shepherd and his dog are not forgotten; and as for the bell-wether, he is deemed of importance enough to have a whole chapter assigned to him. Hints are also given relative to the sheep-houses, with the racks, troughs, and other utensils which they ought to contain; even the lamp and the shepherd's bed are specified. — Hence we pass to the construction of sheds and folds.

Directions are offered in the second volume with as much minuteness as in the first. Here the whole business of breeding is developed; and the proper age for coupling the ram and the ewe is ascertained, as well as the period at which they should be pronounced to be too old for breeding. The season for admitting the male to the female; the relative number of rams to the ewes in a flock; the precautions which ought to be taken in putting the former to the latter; and a variety of other particulars, on which it would not be very delicate for us to descant, are stated with practical minuteness. All these rules are followed by others on the care which ought to be taken of the breeding ewes; on lambing; on the castration of the lambs; on the milk of the mothers, and on the food necessary for them when they have young; on the washing and shearing of sheep; on fatting and selling them, &c. &c.

Fearful, however, lest the principles contained in the preceding part of the work, on the judicious treatment of the wool-bearing animals, should not be thoroughly understood by the French agriculturist, and aware of the vague manner in which this subject has been treated by many writers, M. DE M. devotes a long chapter to the discussion of the methods that should be employed for *the amelioration of flocks.* He begins with inquiring whether sheep of all kinds are capable of being improved; and whether the common and degenerated race of French sheep are susceptible of amelioration? Having ascertained this question in the affirmative, by a fact which he mentions relative to the small sheep of Burgundy, (a little flock of which had its wool much improved merely by breeding *in and in,* as it is called, the proprietor only taking care to preserve the most handsome and vigorous of his lambs for breeding,) the author proceeds to enlarge on the effect of *crosses,* or of coupling a male of one race with females of another. Our country-readers will not require any of the lessons which are here detailed; yet, as a matter of curiosity, they may not be displeased with the author's account of 'the effect of the cross of a French sheep with a Spanish ram.'

'When French ewes are crossed with a ram of the pure Spanish blood, the first generation produces wool more fine than that of their mothers. The lambs of the first generation having in their turn been admitted to the rams of which they were the issue, or to others of the same race, their offspring will carry wool of a still finer staple. This progression has been continued to the third or fourth generation; and it is rarely necessary to wait for the fifth, before the wool, both as to quantity and quality, equals that of the original parent.

'In certain individuals, the advance to perfection is more rapid, though they be taken from a race which do not uniformly and readily acquire the qualities that we may wish to communicate to them. I will explain myself. Let us take fifty Solonaise ewes, to be crossed by two Spanish rams of equal beauty and vigor; or, to obviate all objections, let us suppose twenty-five of the ewes to be given to one Merino ram;—one of these shall produce, in the first instance, a lamb whose fleece shall be as fine as that of its male parent; others shall not display this fineness of wool till the second generation; others not till the third; the greatest number, at the fourth; and some, in short, not till the fifth, though this rarely happens. By this example, nothing is ascertained respecting the *improvability* of different breeds: but only concerning the superior capacity for improvement in certain individuals of the same breed.

'It would be very difficult to explain this matter; and by attempting it we should indulge in conjectures, which would not be supported by examples sufficiently numerous to give confidence in the result. The most that we know is that a sudden change in the nature of animals maintains not an equal duration with that which is affected by progressive crossings. The same thing occurs in the vegetable system; and hence we may be assured that these prompt ameliorations do not perpetuate themselves in the offspring, unless they are fixed by successive crosses with the males from which they were originally derived. Since, then, it is essential that the character which we wish to obtain by this mixture (*metissage*) of breeds should become fixed in the future flock, we must obtain reiterated crosses; and notice the effects produced.

'The first effect consists, as we know, in the quantity and fineness of the wool. We rarely find kemps in the fleeces of the Merinos, but we find them in abundance in the fleeces of our French ewes: with the latter, the thick wool does not reach to within an inch of the knee: but in the Spanish race it descends even to their feet. In the former, the head above and below is only covered with a thick hair; the wool commences at the back of the head, and obliquely embraces the neck; — in the others, the forehead is covered with wool that grows over the eyes, even to such a degree that in some cases it must be cut away to enable the animal to see. The bone which forms the face of the Sologne sheep exhibits the form of a lengthened cone, terminating in a pointed nose: but in the head of the Merinos, the face is shorter, the nose flat and thick, and the skin which covers the upper jaw-bone has wrinkles or folds which are not to be seen in our breeds. These laſt have a small head, and scarcely any forehead; the others have wide heads, with a broad and elevated forehead; their legs are shorter than those of our sheep, and have bodies long in proportion to their breadth. Such are the chief diversities which distinguish the Spanish from the Solonaise race: but it is the character of the first that we must inculcate, if I may so express myself, on the generations which are to proceed from the mixture; and those qualities, in order to be made indelible, require the crossing with the Spanish blood to be continued.'

We have made this extract to shew M. DE M.'s great solicitude for introducing the fine-woolled race of sheep into France, and his anxiety to instruct his countrymen in this branch of rural economy. The production of wool of different qualities seems to have been his study; and his statements, both in the body of the work and in the tables exhibiting the progressive increase of a flock from a given number of ewes and rams, will no doubt be very useful. — On the whole, these volumes are manifestly the effect of experience as well as of reading; and though the author apologizes to his countrymen for his numerous quotations, to us the apology is not necessary. We only wish that he had made more specific references.

Art. X. *Paris, Versailles, et les Provinces,* &c. *i. e.* Paris, Versailles, and the Provinces, in the eighteenth Century: Anecdotes of the private Life of various Ministers, Prelates, celebrated Magistrates, Literary Men, and other well known Personages, in the Reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. By an old Officer of the French Guards. Second Edition. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1809.

A BOOK with the above title, purporting to give us the history, opinions, and character of the eighteenth century, must have been opened by us with no ordinary curiosity. In the whole range of antient or modern times, no extended period has been so remarkable for important interest, so enlightened by universal philosophy, so prolific in the production of stupendous talent, and so instructive in the moral of its events, as the eighteenth century.—To present, therefore, to the public eye, an epitome of this celebrated portion of human existence, and to give a correct and tasteful outline of this multitudinous scene, if at all successful, could not be the production of a mere dauber of human nature. We went immediately into the imaginary formation of a powerful proficient in the knowlege of things and of man, whom alone we could conceive equal to such an arduous task. *Castle-building*, it is said, is of all species of architecture the most easy when it is baseless; we found it, in this instance, as pleasant as easy:—but the pleasure was fleeting; for when we came to try whether our ideal being was the counterpart of the author, we discovered it to be an "unreal mockery," though a courteous vision. We had conceived that a work which deserved the above title must have had its plan, its departments of narrative, of philosophical discussion, and of characteristic description, &c. &c.: but all these fine things were very well "in the mind's eye," and would have been delightful if we had chanced to meet with them in the book before us. Disappointments, however, are not very unfrequent in this sublunary world; and if in the present case we may have met with one, we console ourselves with the idea of the general sufferings of our body; for, indeed, the critic's pain from disappointment cannot be well said to have been "unfelt before," though of all other pains the most "unpitied." — Yet, if the author has not done all that we wished, and that the title of his book suggested, he has done *something*, and that something is worth a glance.

Paris, Versailles, et les Provinces, here supply a collection of miniatures of most of the celebrated characters who adorned or disgraced France during the last hundred years.—The materials are presented without even chronological arrangement, which may, in a work of this kind, be no very great blemish; since the variety of anecdote, and the quick succession of different relations, may please by the carelessness of their position, more than if they were given to us in the most methodical collocation.—The author, therefore, had little else to do than to make each anecdote and each character a perfect whole; and yet so unequal is he that we can scarcely attribute all the pieces in these volumes to the same pen. With a very interesting variety of insulated facts respecting characters notorious or famous among mankind, and with some very able sketches of life and manners, drawn certainly by the pencil of a master, he has mingled stories of *Abbé A* and *Madame B.*, names undistinguished in the mass of French biographical frivolity, and altogether undeserving of notice in a work that treated of the gifted few. He has also permitted low pun and stale jest to occupy niches in his gallery; and we must confess that, when we even found our English volumes of anecdote pillaged of many trite and ten-thousand times-told tales, we began immediately to suspect that the author, impelled perhaps by that terrible thing called *hunger*, (he proclaims himself *un ancien Officier*, and we believe that the Revolution has not left these gentlemen with much to spare,) and without having the fear of the critics before his eyes, adopted the malicious resolve of *making a book*. He has our thanks, however, and he merits honour, for never having disgusted us with any nauseous flattery, which he might have incidentally introduced into his pages; if, like *Des Lozieres*, and most of the present French writers, he had brought down his dignity to the worshipping of the "powers that be" in his unhappy country.—No;—the *ancien Officier* has displayed some of the old cast of honourable military character; and, although writing a volume in a city in which and under a despot from whom he must have had inducements to offer incense to the false god, he has abstained altogether from mentioning with praise any of the "celebrated scoundrels" who have sprung up from the Revolution. We thank him also for many pieces of amusing information concerning the old French court; since scarcely a prime minister, or chancellor, or great officer, has flourished in France during the eighteenth century, of whom he has not told us some anecdote.—His scraps of literature, too, are numerous in these volumes; and we find many epigrams which set Paris in a blaze, and immured the literary victim in the Bastille. We meet also with some state-poems, which, if not of the best remembrance for their versification, should not fall into oblivion, on account of the great political changes which they either caused, or, with the minuteness of satirical truth, described.—To be copious in quotations from these morsels, in prose or verse, would be departing from the standard by which we have measured the value of the production: but we may be allowed to offer a few exemplifications of its contents.

The title of this work prepares us for anecdotes of the late French court, and of persons more or less celebrated in France: but not for a string of tales and bon-mots collected at random, and referring to Englishmen, Russians, &c. as well as to the Gallic nation. Anecdotes of Dr. Young [*] and of Garrick, of *Potemkin* and *Suwarrof*, are blended with the miscellaneous matter of this *olla podrida;* and we are almost at a loss to make selections. Having, however, mentioned *Potemkin*, we shall transcribe the paſſage which records his military ignorance in early life:

> ' Prince *Potemkin*, who was raised to the highest dignities by the favour of the Empress Catherine II., was ignorant, at the commencement of his ministry, of the first elements of the art of war, and had not the least notion even of the different ranks in the military system. Presumptuous in proportion to his ignorance, he boldly decided on objects of the utmost importance, being sure that he should not be opposed by his sovereign, in whose name he exercised the most absolute despotism. No employments or favours could be obtained but through him; and it is not surprizing that he distributed them very improperly, when he fancied that he was accountable only to himself, and never took the advice of those in whom he placed confidence.
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> ' A French officer who had served in Russia, with the rank of captain, having distinguished himself, thought that he was intitled to some military promotion, and presented a petition to the Prince, in which he solicited, as a recompence for his services, the brevet of Lieutenant-Colonel. The Prince, separating in his mind the two titles, conceived that the Captain was aſking a double favour, and fancied that he had discovered the sure way of doing him justice, and at the same time of punishing his presumptuous ambition, by granting to him that one of his two requests which, being placed last, the Prince supposed to be the inferior. He therefore ordered him to be called before him, received him with great *hauteur*, told him that her Imperial Majesty had been surprized at the indiscretion of the double demand, and never conferred two favours at once; that if one of her own subjects had dared to present such a petition, he would have been instantly cashiered: but that, regarding *him* as a stranger, who might be unacquainted with the usages of the empire, and moreover being well satisfied with his conduct, she did not wish to withhold her favours; that, however, she only granted him, for the present, the brevet of *Colonel*, and that it remained with him in future to merit that of *Lieutenant*.'

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[*] Of whom is repeated the well-known anecdote of his being forced to play the flute by some officers in a boat on the river, while he was accompanying a party of ladies in another boat to Vauxhall; with his subsequent revenge.

The author informs us, in the preface, that the arrangement of these recollections has been the occupation of his retreat; that it has carried him back to the happiest periods of his life; and that he has endeavoured, by the remembrance of the past, to enliven the dull monotony of his present situation.

> 'I have recorded (says he,) my thoughts on a multitude of events which have excited my gaiety, my admiration, and my sensibility. The intimate relations in which I stood with personages the most respectable, and occupying places the most important, have furnished me with valuable notices respecting their character, conduct, and private life. The details which they themselves have transmitted to me, on the exercise of their functions, and on the secret politics and interior of the court, have successively recalled themselves to my mind; and I have not without pleasure recollected many little ephemeral events, which, passing with rapidity over the scene of the world, have for the moment fixed the attention of the public, whether in the capital or in the provinces, but have been soon forgotten; though they serve, perhaps, more than historical facts, to develope the different shades of social manners.'

Whatever may be the amusement which the numerous class of light readers may derive from such a miscellany as is here constructed, they must think that the compiler has taken too high ground.

The subsequent little anecdote is truly French;

> 'The Countess *de Grolée*, sister to Cardinal *Tencin*, had led a very dissipated life. At the age of 87, she was taken dangerously ill; and it being deemed right that she should confess, a venerable priest was brought to her bed-side. All who were present were about to retire. "No, no," cried the Countess, "stay here; my confession shall be made aloud, and will scandalize nobody: — Holy Father, I have been young, I have been handsome; this they have told me; I believed it:—you may guess the rest."

Perhaps this short notice of *Voltaire*, which forms only a part of the author's recollections, may not be unacceptable:

> '*Voltaire* seems to have been born with a weak constitution; and yet he preserved himself to a very advanced age. At last, however, he was attacked by some painful complaints, which convinced him that he had not long to live. It is said that in these moments the apprehension of a dreadful futurity, for which he had but too much cause, excited religious sentiments very different from those which he gloried in propagating when he was in health. In one of these moments, he wrote his confession of faith, which was found in the drawer of his bureau at Ferney after his decease, conceived in these words: "*I die adoring God, loving my friends, not hating my enemies, detesting superstition.* VOLTAIRE."
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> 'Each expression in this short paper is susceptible of much comment, whether we consider the immediate connection of the words, or the

the well-known principles of the author. Leaving this discussion to the sagacity of the reader, I shall content myself with saying that the original MS., without date, but in *Voltaire*'s hand writing, and signed with his name, (and which, if we advert to the circumstance of his illness, appears to have been a little prior to his journey to Paris, where he died,) exists at present in a private cabinet, where it is carefully preserved, not truly as a religious monument, but as an object of curiosity.'

We add only the following:

'In 1777, at the time of the commencement of the building of the superb church of St. Genevieve, at Paris, a short copy of Latin verses was handed about, which seemed to contain a prediction of the horrors which impiety produced in France sixteen or seventeen years after that period:

"*Templum augustum, ingens, reginâ assurgit in urbe,*
Urbe et patronâ virgine digna domus.
Tarda nimis Pietas, vanos moliris honores!
Non sunt hæc factis tempora digna tuis.
Antè Deo summâ quàm templum extruxeris urbe,
Impietas templis tollet et urbe Deum."

Art. XI. *Archives des Découvertes*, &c. *i. e.* Archives of Discoveries and new Inventions made in Science, Art, or Manufactures, in France and other Countries, during the Year 1809; with a brief Statement of the principal Products of French National Industry; Notices of Premiums proposed or awarded by different literary Societies, either French or Foreign, for the Encouragement of the Arts and Sciences; &c. &c. 8vo. Paris. 1810. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s. sewed.

So much irregularity now marks the conveyance of books from France to this country, that, although the second volume of this work has been for some time in our hands, we have never had an opportunity of procuring the first: but, the different volumes being independent of each other, we have now determined to furnish our readers with an account of that which is in our possession. The object of the publication is to supply an annual account of all discoveries and inventions in the different arts and sciences, which have been made in France and in other countries; and we need scarcely say that, if well executed, this is a desirable plan. The great merit of such a work, however, must consist in the information being correct; in the different parts bearing a just proportion to each other, corresponding with the importance of the subjects; and in the materials being properly digested and well arranged. In the volume before us, the contents are classed under three general divisions, *Sciences*, *Fine Arts*, and *Mechanical Arts*; though perhaps the obvious division into *Arts* and *Sciences* alone might have been more natural, and equally convenient. The first section is divided into nine chapters, bearing the titles of *natural history*, *natural philosophy*, *chemistry*, *mathematics*, *medicine*, *surgery*, *veterinary medicine*, *pharmacy*, *rural œconomy*, *gardening*, *and domestic œconomy*. Here again, were we inclined to be very minute in our criticism, we might remark that the three latter sections are not thoroughly intitled to the denomination of *sciences*. The cultivation of Swedish turnips and white mustard, the grafting of fruit trees, the formation of invisible fences, the method of destroying grubs, of preparing soups, and of making tamarind punch, &c. &c., may be all considered as useful articles of information, but they have nothing scientific in their nature, nor do they immediately depend on or lead to any scientific investigation.—Under the second section of *Fine Arts*, are included *drawing*, *engraving*, *painting*, *music*, and *writing*. The section on *Mechanical Arts* is divided into the heads, *steel*, *arms*, *jewelry*, *wax*, *construction of buildings*, *ropes*, *colours and varnishes*, *copper*, *stuffs*, *artificial fires*, *clocks*, *wool*, *linen*, *lamps*, *machines*, *cements and mortars*, *paper*, *pasteboard and parchment*, *stoves*, *ovens*, *pumps*, *pottery*, *porcelain*, *locks*, *silk*, *sugar and syrups*, *tanning*, *dyeing*, *weaving*, *peat*, *velvet*, *glass*, *wine*, *screws*, *carriages*, and *zinc*. In the original, these subjects are arranged in alphabetical order, which gives them a more methodical aspect than they bear in the translation.

In the examination of this work, we shall pursue the plan which we have generally adopted on similar occasions, of confining our attention chiefly to particular parts; and while these parts are selected without any motive of preference, we may fairly regard them as exhibiting a specimen of the merits of the whole. We shall commence by the article *Chemistry*. It begins with Professor Davy's discoveries on the decomposition of the alkalies, which is said to be taken from a report of M. *Delametherie*. The detail of the leading experiments is short, but correct; and the writer subjoins the following remarks:

> ‘All the experiments of Professor Davy have been repeated by a great number of chemists, and have been found perfectly exact: but though the same results have been obtained, different consequences have been deduced from them. The partizans of the system of *Lavoisier* could not admit that their oxygen should be one of the principles of alkalies, as Dr. Davy advances; and they have consequently declared that potash and soda are not metallic oxyds, but simple bodies, which, in combining with hydrogen, form hydrurets. This opinion has been advanced by M. M. *Gay-Lussac*, *Thènard*, *Curaudan*,

Ritter, &c. With respect to ammoniac, M. *Berthollet* jun. has performed some experiments, from which he concludes that it does not contain oxygen. We must expect, from farther trials, new illustrations of these great questions.'

Professor Davy's discoveries respecting the earths are then properly noticed; and from them the writer concludes that we are warranted in considering the earths, as well as the alkalies, to be metallic oxyds, 'since it is not easy to explain the phænomena in detail by any other hypothesis.' We have a tolerably full account of the processes in which amalgams have been formed by the action of mercury on ammoniac, first by the Swedish chemists *Berzelius* and *Pontin*, and afterward by Professor Davy; and also of the substances produced by the union of the alkaline metals and ammoniac. Our scientific readers must be aware that these results have been the subject of controversy between Dr. Davy and M. M. *Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard*; as also that these gentlemen deduce from them very different theoretical conclusions; and the several statements and hypotheses, which have been adduced on both sides of the question, are given in this volume with correctness and impartiality. The different papers which M.M.*Gay-Lussac* and *Thénard* have written on the subject of Dr. Davy's discoveries, in which they have brought forwards a number of new facts, and have displayed a degree of acuteness scarcely inferior to that of our celebrated countryman, next pass under review, and we are presented with a judicious abstract of their contents. We have then an account of some of the papers from the memoirs of the Society of Arcueil, and afterward a number of miscellaneous articles, taken chiefly from the different French periodical works, *Annales des Arts et Manufactures*, *Bibliothèque Britannique*, *Bulletin de Pharmacie*, *Bulletin de Société philomatique*, *Journal de Physique*, *Magazin des Inventions*, *Journal de Médecine de M. Sedillot*, *Annales du Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle*, and from the *Moniteur*; as also a few quotations from the German works, and in one instance from Nicholson's Journal. The references to the English chemists are indeed but scanty, and their experiments are almost always given through the medium of some of the French periodical publications: a circumstance which affords an additional proof of the limited circulation of English books on the continent, and of the little information which the French possess respecting the progress of science in this country. Besides Dr. Davy's experiments, the only English works of which any account is given are Sir James Hall's experiments on the fusion of substances in close vessels, Dr. Henry's description of an apparatus for analyzing compound inflammable gases, Dr. Marcet's analysis of the water of the Dead Sea, and Mr. Biddle's experiments

ments on the specific gravity of concrete mercury. The following is the account of Sir James Hall's experiments:

> 'The Chevalier Hall, of Edinburgh, has subjected different substances to fusion in close vessels, which could not be broken; and the results of this fusion have been very different from those which would have been produced in the open air. Instead of being vitrified, most of these matters have preserved the earthy appearance: chalk, instead of being calcined, assumed the crystalline texture of white marble; wood and horn have been converted into a kind of pit-coal, &c.—These experiments were undertaken for the purpose of confirming Hutton's theory of the earth, according to which the interior parts of the globe have been exposed to an intense heat.'

This statement is taken from 'the Report of M. *Cuvier*, on the transactions of the class of the mathematical and physical sciences of the Institute, inserted in the Moniteur of the 5th January, 1809.' The subsequent piece of information, which professes to be derived from the same quarter, may be interesting to our scientific readers:

> 'M. *de Dree* has made known to the class a series of analogous experiments, performed in order to throw light on certain phænomena, and less hypothetical ideas. Considering that the focus of volcanoes is placed at a great depth, and far from all access of air, he conceived that they might be imitated by fusions in closed vessels and under an irresistible pressure, and consequently that the effects of them might be explained. Having treated in this manner rocks with a base of trap and petrosilex, he has shewn that they assume every appearance of the stony lavas, and that the crystals of feldspar contained in these rocks are not altered by it; and this circumstance explains the singular fact of so many very fusible crystals contained in lavas;—a fact which rendered it doubtful whether these lavas had ever been melted.'

In the chapter on *Medicine*, we find articles, as in the former case, chiefly taken from the French periodical works; *Bulletin des Sciences Médicales*, *Journal de Botanique*, *Bibliothèque physico-économique*, *Bulletin de Pharmacie*, *Sedillot's Journal de Médecine*, *Bibliothèque Britannique*, *Annales generales de Médecine*, and *Annales de Médecine pratique de Montpelier;* with some extracts from *Hufeland's* Journal of medicine, but no reference to any English journal; and little notice is taken of any of our medical publications. For the most part, the information contained in this section is not particularly interesting: but whether this be owing to the paucity of the materials, or to the negligence of the compiler, we are unable to determine. We shall mention some of the most novel articles of intelligence.—M. *Haguenot* is said to have observed that the use of large quantities of sugar in our diet tends to the production of uric acid in the system. — A mode of practice is related which, we fear, must be regarded as one more unsuccessful attempt to check the course of that most horrid of all diseases, hydrophobia:

> ' Dr. *Wendelstadt* has stated in the Medical Journal, published in German by *Hufeland*, that he has been able to preserve a young man, fourteen years of age, from this disease, who had been bitten by a mad dog. Besides cauterization and other means, he employs also dephlogisticated muriatic acid; which has been acknowleged, especially in England, to possess great efficacy in wounds of this description. He refers, on this occasion, to the anecdote of an Englishman, who, after having already made use of this acid to preserve himself from madness, caused himself again to be bitten twice by a mad dog, and was cured each time by the use of this substance as a lotion. M. *Fourcroy* had already announced, in the 28th volume of the *Annales de Chimie*, that the oxygenated muriatic acid instantly destroys the hydrophobic virus; and that it produces absolutely the same effect as cauterization by fire, and the oxygenated muriate of antimony, proposed in the dissertation of M. *Leroux*, which was crowned in 1783 by the Royal Academy of Surgery.'

A new cure for the gout is proposed by M. *Pradier*; and M. *Halle* makes a report of its success, after having had a fair trial given to it, under the inspection of a committee of the faculty of medicine. The report is candid and judicious, but the composition of the remedy remains a secret; so that, as is the case of every other secret remedy, we may conclude that its virtues depend in a great measure on our ignorance of its nature.

The third section, intitled *Mechanical Arts*, contains a great number of articles of very different degrees of value, but many of them sufficiently interesting. On the great scale, we have little apprehension of France becoming a formidable rival to this country: but the notices which we find in this volume shew that considerable attention is paid to these subjects, and that they are directly encouraged by the French government. Our neighbours are the most likely to excel in those arts which depend more immediately on chemical principles; and it appears also that they exercise much ingenuity on metallurgy, and the formation of minute articles of workmanship, such as locks and time-pieces. The subsequent method of applying platina to copper promises to be of considerable utility:

> ' From what is said in Nicholson's Journal of Natural Philosophy' (referring to the experiments of Mr. Stodart,) ' M. *Strans* has accomplished the fixation of platina on copper, so as to preserve it by this means from the action of acids. The process is as follows. The platina is dissolved in aqua regia, and the solution is precipitated by sal ammoniac. The precipitate is afterward edulcorated with a large

quantity of water, and exposed during half an hour in a well-luted crucible, in a heat sufficiently powerful to make the crucible red hot; when the precipitate is found to be converted into a grey powder, which is merely the platina very much divided. One part of this powder is afterward bruised in a mortar well warmed, with five parts of mercury, in order to form a thickish amalgam; and two parts of mercury are added to render it more soft. If this amalgam of platina be placed on polished copper, it applies very closely to it; and after the mercury has been driven off by heat, the pure platina remains attached to the copper. This operation succeeds still better if the amalgam be mixed with a little chalk moistened with water, which is applied a second time, the mercury being evaporated by the fire. If copper thus platinated be polished, it assumes a splendour equal to that of silver, and may be employed for culinary purposes.'

Three different methods are pointed out, for preparing sugar from grapes; processes which we notice rather as evincing the anxiety of the French to avail themselves of every substitute for West India sugar, than from any idea that they will ever prove resources of much importance to the country. The method of extracting the sugar from the pulp of the grapes does not seem to be materially or essentially different from the preparation of sugar from the juice of the cane: but the processes which are detailed do not enable us accurately to ascertain the proportion of sugar that is obtained from a given quantity of grapes, though it would appear to be considerable. One of the writers, M. *Laurens* of Marseilles, observes with respect to two different species of syrup, that the greatest quantity of concrete sugar is 75 pounds from 100 of syrup; and it is said that the remaining 25 pounds form a kind of sweet fluid, which may be usefully employed for many purposes. The same person remarks that the cost of the syrup of the grape is never more than 6d. per pound, and that the sugar may be about 8d.; varying, however, according to the price of the grapes, and of the fuel which is necessary for the process.

The general character which we should give of this repository is that it may be perused with interest and instruction; that it probably conveys a fair idea of the attention which is paid to the arts and sciences in France; that the details are generally clear, though concise; and that the authority on which they rest is always quoted. Regarding the work, however, as referring not to France merely but to the rest of Europe, and to this country in particular, it is extremely imperfect.

mind. Their scheme has now undergone the trial of nearly twenty years; and it is adopted by the orators of the Imperial council, with some variations imposed by the altered nature of the government, and others which have been suggested by the experiment itself.

These rests and pauses, in which a nation calmly looks back on her former practice with a view to amendment, are advantages dearly bought in a despotic government by violent convulsions, which they precede or follow. They are the moments of awful tranquillity that announce the approaching hurricane, or the first respite which permits the half-recovered proprietor to repair its destructive ravages. In a free state, like our own, where the warmest discussion of general topics provokes only an answer, and the most violent animadversions serve only to prove the stability of the system against which they are directed, no period can be improper for the detection of abuses, the exposure of errors, and the suggestion of remedies. Yet, this very facility may sometimes operate to defeat the objects within its command; and as, according to the vulgar observation, "every body's business is nobody's business," so the exact season seems never to arrive for doing that which may at any time be effected. It is said, "things have gone on hitherto without any very material inconvenience; why select this particular instant for redressing trifling wrongs, which the habitual sufferance of them renders comparatively harmless? The events of the passing hour are fully sufficient to absorb the faculties of the wisest governors: their temporary pressure cannot dispense with immediate and unremitting attention; and why should we divert any part of it to that prospective amelioration which has been long delayed, and may wait a little longer, and which may be brought about *at any time* with as much advantage as at the present?" — Without encountering these approved excuses of indolence and inactivity by other topics as general in their nature, but of an opposite tendency, — and without citing or even insinuating the instructive proof which recent circumstances have afforded, of the immense danger of unnecessary postponements, — we shall merely observe that at the present epoch the public mind does happen to be peculiarly alive to the doctrines of criminal jurisprudence, and the defects in our own penal system. Undismayed by the various objections and imputations which are calculated to deter them from the inquiry, several of the most distinguished members of our legislature have presumed to question the policy, the justice, and the humanity of our existing laws, and have most certainly been seconded by a very strong opinion *out of doors.* The opportunity, therefore, appears to be favorable for giving circulation to a rather ample exposition of the course pursued on the same subject by a great and enlightened people; and we design to state fully the contents of the work before us, for the information of our own countrymen, — without instituting any parallel, or obtruding many remarks, except for the purpose of rendering more intelligible, by the contrast, that which, standing alone, it might be difficult to explain.

The Penal Code of France begins with certain preliminary dispositions, comprising little more than a definition of the legal terms most constantly employed; and the first book opens with a table of punishments, which are divided into, 1, the afflictive and infamous; 2, the infamous; 3, the correctional. Those of the first description are, death, compulsory labour for life or for a certain time, deportation, and imprisonment. Under the second head are the pillory, banishment, and civil degradation. The correctional punishments are temporary imprisonment in a place of correction, temporary interdiction from certain rights, either of a civic or a domestic nature, and fines. — In the details which regulate the mode of inflicting these punishments, it is enacted that a parricide shall be taken in his shirt to the place of execution, barefooted, and his head covered with a black veil; that he shall be exposed on the scaffold while his sentence is read aloud; that his right hand shall be cut off, and he shall then be instantly executed. Decapitation is the only mode in which capital punishment can be administered.

In their remarks on this catalogue, the orators of the Council introduce the subject of solitary confinement in terms not unworthy of consideration:

> 'We have suppressed the punishment of *constraint, (la gêne)* which consisted in being imprisoned without any communication externally or with the other prisoners; which was sometimes pronounced for a term of twenty years. We confess that on this occasion we do not recognize the philanthropic sentiments of the Constituent Assembly; for what is the destiny of a man confined for twenty years, without hope of communication either with those within or those without the prison? Is he not plunged living into the tomb? Besides, what can be the utility of this punishment? It cannot be said to be established for example, since the criminal, withdrawn from every eye, may also be said to be dead to society: it is moreover almost impossible that an arrangement, which introduces so severe a sequestration, should ever be carried into execution, — an additional motive for making the punishment of solitary confinement disappear from the penal code.'

Whether the total exclusion of the sentence in question can be defended as a prudent measure, we shall offer no opinion: but we confess that our ideas of humanity are widely different from those of persons who can propose the commutation of death for absolute and permanent solitude, as a measure of humanity. To us the suggestion of Cæsar, for the imprisonment of Catiline's associates, has ever appeared more cruel than Cato's stern denunciation of immediate death.

The punishment of civil degradation can scarcely be deemed very severe in France, when it excludes from voting at elections and from serving in the army.—For certain offences, on which the law entirely declines to animadvert,—and for others, when expiated by a given portion of legal restraint,—the offender is remitted to the superintendance of the police; a state nearly answering that of a person in this country, who enters into a recognizance for abstaining from any particular mode of offending against the security of society.

The fourth and last chapter of the first book is of high importance. It relates to the *récidive*, or repetition of crimes and delinquencies which have already been visited by public justice:

> 'If any person, having been condemned for any crime, shall commit a second crime which imports civil degradation, he shall be adjudged to the pillory. — If the second crime incurs the pillory or banishment, he shall be sentenced to imprisonment. — If the second crime entails the punishment of imprisonment, he shall be condemned to compulsory labour for a term, and to the brand. — If the second crime be liable to compulsory labour for a term, or deportation, he shall be condemned to compulsory labor for life. — If the second crime be amenable to the punishment of compulsory labour for life, he shall be condemned to suffer death.'

On these provisions, the orators offer the following observations:

> 'A first crime does not always necessarily suppose complete depravity in him who has been guilty of it: but a relapse into crime indicates vicious habits and a fund of wickedness, or at least of weakness not less dangerous to the social body than wickedness. A second crime ought therefore to be repressed with more severity than the first.
>
> 'The Constituent Assembly established against the second commission only the same punishment which was denounced against the first by the law, without distinction of the relapse: but it required that criminals, after having suffered the sentence, should on a relapse be deported; an enactment which we do not deem conformable to the rules of exact justice, since it makes no distinction between him whose second crime imports imprisonment only, and him whose second crime incurs the punishment of four-and-twenty years in irons; the heaviest, after that of death, which is inflicted by the code of 1791. We have therefore considered it as right to seek another rule, more consistent with the proportions which ought to exist between crimes and punish-

ments,

paragraphs. — *Chap.* I. is devoted to crimes and offences against the safety of the state. Bearing arms against France, and adhering to the foreign enemies of the empire, are capital; and the various shades of treasonable correspondence, by which a certain degree of facility may be afforded to the commission of the same crimes, are visited with proportionate severity. Any attempt or conspiracy against the life or the person of the Emperor is high treason, and shall be punished as parricide; and any attempt or conspiracy against the life or the person of a member of the Imperial family, or for the purpose of destroying or changing the government, or the right of succession to the throne, or to excite to arms in opposition to the imperial authority, shall be punished with death and confiscation of goods. — An *attempt* is defined to exist, when any act is committed or begun towards arriving at the execution of those crimes, though they may not have been consummated; and a *conspiracy* (*complot*), when the resolution to act is concerted and formed between two conspirators, or any greater number, though no attempt has followed. A mere proposal made, and not accepted, to attack the person of the Emperor, is to be punished by imprisonment; a milder provision than that of the law of England, which would consider the last mentioned offence as capital, under the title of "imagining the death" of the sovereign: but we may be allowed to doubt whether, in practice, the accused in France would enjoy so fair a trial as he would receive in this country under the statute of Edward VI.

Death and confiscation are also denounced against those who shall foment civil war, devastation, massacre, or pillage; or shall prepare the way for those horrors by arming illegal levies, or shall destroy the magazines, arsenals, vessels, and edifices belonging to the state. The lower gradations of the same crimes, and minor offences tending to the same effect, are subjected to diminished penalties. The concealment and non-revelation of similar designs, within four-and-twenty hours after they come to the knowlege of any subject, are likewise declared penal: but imprisonment is the highest punishment inflicted, even if the case involves high treason. A singular exception is nevertheless admitted in the universality of this obligation:

> 'Notwithstanding, if the author of the conspiracy or the crime be the husband or the wife, *even though divorced*, the ancestor or descendant, the brother or sister, or the relation by alliance within any of the same degrees, of the person convicted of silence, such person shall not be liable to the penalty enacted in the preceding articles, but may be placed, by the sentence, under the superintendance of the high police, for any term not exceeding ten years.'

Chap. II. aims at the suppression of crimes and offences against the constitutions of the Empire; — a description so extremely large, that under it every sort of transgression might correctly and appropriately fall: but it is here confined to the disturbance of the exercise of civil rights, attempts hostile to liberty on the part of public functionaries, and other improprieties in the official conduct of such functionaries. We think that it is unnecessary to enter into minute particulars on this subject: but it is difficult to abstain from contrasting the jealous vigilance exerted by the French law over the conduct of their judges, with the total silence of the English law as to the same important object, and the unlimited confidence which it reposes in their integrity. These opposite sentiments are perfectly sanctioned, we doubt not, by experience: but Englishmen will cherish no envy towards a country that has yet to create the feeling of rectitude and honour, which in their own has elevated the judicial character beyond rivalry, suspicion, or reproach.

Chapter III. embraces crimes and offences against the public peace; — and here the technical distribution of subjects appears to us rather pedantic than judicious, since many misdemeanors falling under the former heads are much more closely connected with the public tranquillity than those which are here set forth. The *crimen falsi*, to which our legal vocabulary assigns the narrower term of *forgery*, is placed at the head of the list. Like all other crimes within the operation of this code, the higher and more dangerous modifications of it incur the severest punishment, while the less aggravated species are exposed to slighter visitations. Various delinquencies of public functionaries are then enumerated, and the penalties affixed: none of them seem to call for particular observation, till we arrive at a section which reflects in strong terms on those ministers of religious worship who, in direct contradiction to the established practice of orthodox divines, convert the pulpit into a scene of political declamation *against* "the powers that be." This branch of the law proves at least the strong disposition to infringe it; and the legislator, by a very natural gradation, is led to impose certain fetters on the liberty of discussion in sermons and pastoral letters, which would properly come under consideration in conjunction with the long debated law of *Libel*, on which we shall presently say a few words.

After these enactments, we are somewhat surprised to stumble on a section devoted to the portentous name of *Rebellion*, which we certainly thought had been included under the branch of high treason, or of excitement to civil war: but the word here signifies a resistance of a partial nature to particular acts of the government, as the collection of revenue, the operations of police, &c., or illegal combinations of workmen, insurrections of prisoners, &c. In no instance is rebellion the object of capital punishment. Connected with offences of this nature, are outrages committed against the depositaries of the public authority, the refusal of a service legally due, the escape of prisoners, the protection of criminals, and the like. Associations of malefactors are visited by the law; vagrancy and mendicity are pronounced to be offences; and the sixth section of the chapter now under consideration we regard as infinitely important, though its ostensible subject seems to be confined within a very narrow compass. It is headed thus: 'Offences committed by writings, images, or engravings, *circulated without the name* of the author, printer, or engraver.'

It is a regulation of police, then, in France, that the name of the author *or* of the printer, (as it is an enactment in one of the bills passed here during Mr. Pitt's administration, that the name of the printer,) shall appear in some visible part of the publication. The breach of our law in this respect incurs penalties which might have proved ruinous to an innocent tradesman, unless the legislature had interposed to limit their amount, by an act brought in during the present session; and the violalation of the French decree is punished by imprisonment for a term, varying, at the discretion of the judge, from six days to six months. In all this we see no great harm: but the present section of the code is of far more consequence in what it omits, and in what it insinuates, than in that which it expresses and enacts. This would be the appropriate occasion for introducing the law of *Libel* into a code which, superseding the *lex non scripta*, and professing absolute certainty in the denunciation of crimes, should act as an effectual beacon to warn all men against the commission of them. *Libels*, however, as the objects of criminal visitation, are mentioned only twice, and in the slightest and most incidental manner. The pastoral letters, indeed, to which we have before alluded, if they *criticize* or *censure* either the government or *any act* of public authority, expose the writer to banishment; or, if they contain a *direct provocation to disobedience* of the laws, to deportation; and in case such provocation is *followed* by sedition or revolt subjecting any of the actors to a severer punishment, such severer punishment shall also be inflicted on the minister of religion! Here, indeed, the denunciation is sufficiently direct: but the only reason that we can conceive, for selecting the single case of pastoral letters issued by priests, is that persons in general are relieved from the responsibility of publication by a system which suppresses instead of chastising, and preserves the freedom of the press from occasional attacks, by keeping it perpetually fast-locked in the custody of government itself!

We must observe at the same time the slippery and dangerous ambiguity of the terms here employed, and the immense latitude of interpretation in which the judges are permitted to expatiate; — a feature which peculiarly characterises every part of this code, and which we were in some degree prepared to expect from a brevity and conciseness that are incompatible with strictness of legal definition. Human language has not yet attained the perfection of embracing in few words a great variety of complicated cases.—We must not, however, indulge in general observstions, and shall dismiss this chapter by stating that it is illegal to pursue the profession of crying ballads or sticking bills, without a licence from the police; and that no assembly of more than twenty persons can meet for political, religious, or *literary* purposes, without the permission of the government, subject to any conditions which it may chuse to impose.

The *second title* of the *third book* relates to crimes and offences against individuals, and contains one chapter devoted to attacks on the person, and another confined to violations of property. — The first section of *Chap.* I. inflicts death for assassination, parricide, infanticide, and poisoning. A want of uniformity is discoverable between the legal language here used, and that with which we are familiar on this subject; and we think that a superiority of just distinction prevails in the former over the latter. *L'assassinat* is discriminated from *le meurtre*, and answers to *murder* in the English law, or a killing with premeditated malice; while *meurtre* is defined to be only a voluntary killing. *Wilful* and *malicious* with us are synonimous, when applied to the destruction of life; yet it is evident that numberless shades of difference may exist between them. *Meurtre* is accordingly punished with compulsory labour for life in general, but becomes capital when accompanied or followed by any other crime. — The two following sections comprize the offences of menacing, wounding, and striking; with a description of such circumstances as may render these acts, as well as homicide itself, either justifiable altogether, or the objects of a mitigated sentence.—Sect. iv. treats on offences against morality. The most aggravated crime of this description, committed under the most aggravated circumstances, and consummated against persons of either sex, we are astonished to find is not rendered capital. The crime of simple rape, taken in this extended signification, is avenged by confinement: if perpetrated against a child under fifteen years of age, the criminal shall be kept to hard labour for a time; and he shall suffer the same constraint for life, if he had been intrusted with any authority over the object of his violence, if the tutor or the servant of the party attacked, if a public functionary, or a minister of religion, or if he was assisted in his offence by several persons. This lenity appears extraordinary.—The corruption of youth, and the exposure to prostitution, more especially by parents and others in authority, are considered in this section. Adultery is punishable in the wife on the complaint of the husband only, by an imprisonment, which it is always in his option to terminate by receiving her again. If he keeps a concubine, he may be fined; and bigamy in either party entails a heavier visitation than is consistent either with the English jurisprudence, or, in our judgment, with the necessity of the case; the culprit is confined to hard labour for a time.—The remaining sections impose penalties of great severity on offenders of a description scarcely known in this country; those who illegally arrest and confine others; those who conceal the fact of a birth, or substitute one child for another; and those who secrete minors. The subtraction of the body of any person, who is supposed to have died from violence, is punished as a contravention of what may certainly be considered as a very wise regulation of police.

In the *seventh section*, directed against false testimony, calumny, insult, and the revelation of secrets professionally intrusted, we discover a principle of some importance, as to the law of libel affecting the character and feelings of individuals, which is not quite inapplicable to the question so often agitated among us, " how far that which is true can justly be styled libellous."—'Every imputation,' says this Penal Code, 'is reputed false, which is not supported by legal proof. In consequence, the author of the imputation shall not be allowed to demand, in his defence, that the proof be entered into: neither shall he be able to allege as an excuse that the documents or the facts are notorious; or that the imputations which give rise to the prosecution are copied or extracted from foreign papers, or other printed writings.'—'When the fact imputed shall be legally proved true, the author of the imputation shall be exempted from all penalty: but nothing shall be considered as a legal proof, but that which results from a judgment, or some other authentic act.'—In short, as we understand the provision, the defendant who is accused of calumny shall not be allowed to repel *that* accusation, by proving his charge to be true: but he may institute another proceeding for the purpose of doing this, and, if he be successful, he shall escape punishment. We think that this is a wise and simple expedient, in a case naturally involved in great difficulty, for reconciling the interests of truth with the public tranquillity and the protection of private character.

The extensive head of *Theft* takes the lead in the *Second Chapter*, comprising attacks on property. The crime is capital when attended with the five following circumstances, — commission in the night time,—by several persons,—with the assistance of weapons,—by the aid of breaking open doors, or of false keys, — with violence and menaces. We restrain our disposition to censure the exemption of so many thefts from the capital punishment which is so frequently pronounced against them here, because it may perhaps proceed from the extreme familiarity with severe sentences which the language, though not the practice, of our penal laws, renders unavoidable. Still, we hesitate to approve the superior mildness here exercised with respect to crimes of so much danger as highway-robbery and burglary; though the former is to be punished with hard labour for life, and the latter with hard labour for a time. These punishments are indeed in themselves much more severe than the degree of comparison on which they naturally stand, in our minds, with that of death, will easily allow us to perceive: but so far are the French legislators from thinking that the security of property is increased by punishing petty larcenies with the loss of life, when committed in shops, booths, canals, &c., that they expressly reject the boasted influence of intimidation in this respect, as having been proved by experience to defeat its own object:

> 'As to thefts,' say the orators of government, 'of objects exposed to the public faith, the law of 1791 subjected them all indiscriminately to an afflictive penalty.' (not death, even then.) 'Many of these crimes remained unpunished, *because the sentence was found to be too severe*, and *the acquittal of criminals was preferred to subjecting them to a chastisement exceeding that which they appeared to have deserved*.' (*Motifs du Code Penal, p.* 111.)

The opposite extreme of indiscriminate lenity, which was tried by the Directory, was found equally ineffectual; and the present Code has drawn a distinction which merits attention. Property *necessarily* exposed, as cattle, crops, implements of husbandry, &c. are protected by the terror of afflictive punishments, very short indeed of the last infliction to which man is subject, and for that reason more likely to be carried into execution: but the theft of articles *voluntarily* exposed is repressed by the correctional police, which has no power beyond that of imprisoning for a very limited period. Amends perhaps ought, in all cases, if possible, to be made to the loser.

On the subject of *Larceny*, we must not conclude our remarks without stating one peculiar circumstance of exemption, of which we quote the subsequent description, not from the

Code itself, but from the *Motives* detailed by the orators who present it:

> ' This principle consists in repealing all power of public prosecution, and admitting a civil action only; that is, an action for damages and interests, in regard to every kind of fraud executed by husbands to the prejudice of their wives, by wives to the injury of their husbands, by a widower or a widow as to property which had belonged to the deceased husband or wife; in a word, by relations and connections, lineally ascending or descending, against each other.
>
> ' The union of such persons is too close and intimate to allow public officers, on occasion of pecuniary interests, to scrutinize family secrets, which possibly ought never to be divulged; and it must be dangerous in the extreme that an accusation should be brought in those affairs, in which the line that separates mere indelicacy from real delinquency is hard to be discovered,' &c.

The reader will here be reminded of a similar saving clause introduced into the Chinese code in favour of near relations: but it is a proof of the looseness and inaccuracy with which the present Code has been penned, that no provision is made for excluding acts of violence committed between relations who do not reside under the same roof, from the benefit of this most extensive privilege.

If in some instances we have awarded the preference to the Code of the rival nation, we may boldly claim the praise of superior liberality and good sense for that of England, in respect to the section which immediately follows. Its very title is sufficient to convict it at once of false political economy, and of the most cruel of all injustice,—that which confounds misfortune with guilt. It is thus superscribed—' Of Bankruptcy *and Swindling*. (*Escroquerie.*)' In conformity to language thus barbarously ignorant, every bankrupt, in addition to the ruin of his affairs and the misery of his family, is subjected to afflictive and infamous punishments! While this law is carried into effect, we need not fear the commercial competition of our neighbour.

The remaining dispensations of the *third book*, and the whole of *the fourth*, strike us as not deserving particular attention. They are trifling and minute, relating to the most paltry attacks on property, and to that long list of petty grievances which our law classes under the denomination of *nuisance:* they appear in general equitable and moderate, but they do not involve either leading principles or important consequences.

We have judged it sufficient to call the attention of the public to the more material parts of the Code, and have laboured to compress them, as well as our opinions on them, into the smallest space; for we are persuaded that those who are intrusted with the reform and the preservation of the English system will profit by studying that of France. Not that we recommend it for indiscriminate imitation, or are blind to its numerous defects of arrangement, precision, and subject: but since nothing can keep the foundations of society clear of corruption and decay, except a frequent recurrence to first principles, we think that much benefit may be derived from attending to the practical discussion of them, by some of the first men in a neighbouring nation, in many instances closely resembling our own: happy, we repeat, that, on this as on every other subject, the very nature of our constitution provides the means of peaceably introducing those remedies of what is wrong, and those improvements of what is incompletely right, which countries less favoured have been compelled to purchase at the dreadful price of subversion, massacre, and desolation!

Another task remains to be performed; that of disavowing in the strongest terms all participation in the extravagant and disgusting praise,—praise "which *damneth* him who gives and him who takes,"—with which the consecrated head of the Emperor is so profusely anointed by MM. *Les Comtes Treilhard, Faure, Giunts,* &c. It equally proves the degrading servility of their minds, and the coarse appetite for the flattery of inferiors that sways the Imperial bosom; which is, we believe, generally found in an inverse ratio to the love of rectitude, and the desire of honourable renown.

Art. XIII. *Programmes d'un Cours de Physique,* &c.; *i. e.* Programma of a Course of *Physics,* or an Abstract of Lectures on the principal Phænomena of Nature, and on certain Applications of Mathematical to *Physical Science.* By M. Hachette, Institutor of the Imperial Polytechnic School, and Professor of Mathematics, &c. 8vo. pp. 246. and 6 Plates. Paris. 1809. London, De Boffe. Price 10s. 6d. sewed.

Only certain parts of this publication admit of being criticised, since it is in the nature of a syllabus, in which continual gaps are left to be filled up by the spoken explanations of the lecturer. From some portions, however, we judge favourably of M. Hachette's lecturing powers; and one especially deserves notice, in which, within a very short compass, he lays down the principles of M. *Haüy*'s theory of crystallization. Another part, on caloric, by *Monge,* is not quite so satisfactory; and we think also that the work would not have been deteriorated if some of the reasoning about mobility, &c. had been omitted.

The application of caustics, to the determination of the *apparent places* of objects seen obliquely by reflection and refraction,

fraction, is new to us: but we think that it is very beautiful, and are surprized that the notion never struck us before. The explanation of the rainbow, and the calculations belonging to it, are also effected with considerable perspicuity and art: indeed, we regard these as the best parts of the performance; for when the author discourses of mere theory, we feel an inclination to animadvert on the ambiguity of his phrases and the doubtfulness of his positions.

In his Lecture on Electricity, M. HACHETTE explains *Coulomb*'s instrument for measuring the intensity of the electrical fluid; and he gives some simple algebraical formulæ, which must be used with it, for the just deduction of the exact degrees of intensity. The English have not turned their views much towards this part of the subject: nor do the French, even with *Coulomb*'s instruments and formulæ, seem to have arrived at any curious or important results. Electricity in both countries is yet at a stand; and scarcely any thing is added to the discoveries and results of Benjamin Franklin.—Galvanism, however, is doing wonders.

This lecture on Electricity is one of the longest, and it is followed by a short chapter on magnetism, which concludes the Course.

ART. XIV. *Le libre Arbitre*, &c.; *i. e.* On Free Will. By STANISLAUS BOUFFLERS, Member of the National Institute. 8vo. pp. 249. Paris. Imported by Deconchy. Price 7s.

M. BOUFFLERS belonged to that unfortunate class of Frenchmen who were banished from their homes by the terror of the Revolution; and finding himself in solitude, without either friends or books, his mind sought occupation in its own resources, and resorted to study as an antidote to chagrin. It was rather unlucky, however, that, in this absence from books and literary society, he should engage in so very difficult a department as metaphysics: or, if he might be permitted to indulge himself in meditating on whatever subject he chose, it will readily be allowed that he did wrong to publish, in their original state, the fruits of his unassisted labours. To publish, however, he was determined; and even when books were within his reach, he declined all reference to them, for the notable purpose that the world might see, unaltered, the course of ideas which had occurred to a solitary thinker. The consequence is such as might have easily been foreseen:—the student, who has analyzed the labours of Locke and Reid, will not reap advantage from those of M. BOUFFLERS. When we have assigned to this writer the merit of good intention, and to his style the advantage of perspicuity, we have gone as far in commendation as justice will allow. We have seldom seen a work of which the author had more need to keep in mind the observation of Mr. Hume, that no philosophy is valuable which does not descend to particulars.

ART. XV. *Eloge de M. D'Orléans de la Motte, &c.*; *i.e.* Eulogy of M. *D'Orléans de Lamotte*, Bishop of Amiens, to which are subjoined historical Notes. By M. N. S. GUILLON, Honorary Canon of the Church of Paris, and Professor of Eloquence in the Bonaparte Lyceum. A Discourse which obtained the Prize at the Academy of Sciences and Letters of Amiens in 1809. 8vo. pp. 54. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2s. 6d.

NEVER was one ecclesiastic more highly eulogized by another than M. *D'Orléans de la Motte* by M. GUILLON; who, thirty-four years after the death of the Bishop of Amiens, exerts all the powers of his art to irradiate the fame of the deceased prelate. To give due stage-effect to the representation, the theatre is darkened before the grand figure is exhibited: the city of Amiens is first described as all mourning and tears on account of the death of her Bishop; and then he is displayed with all his talents and virtues.

From the prefixed sketch of his life, it appears that *Louis-François-Gabriel D'Orléans de Lamotte* was born at Carpentras, in the *comtat Venaissin*, January 13, 1683, and died June 10, 1774; his zeal for the Catholic faith, his wisdom, his firmness, and his beneficence, are sung in animated strains; and not even the *wit* of the good bishop is forgotten, any more than his piety. Indeed, M. GUILLON has given to M. *Lamotte*, as Pope has assigned to our Berkeley, "every virtue under heaven." His unbounded submission to the see of Rome, and his energy in defending the Jesuits, as well as his determined hostility to the poor Jansenists, recommend him to the applause of his eulogist. He is compared to Athanasius for orthodoxy, and to Cicero for wit. Several of his *bon-mots* are recorded in the body of the discourse, and also in the notes which are subjoined. For the amusement of our fair readers, we transcribe one of the latter:

> 'A lady having consulted him whether she ought to use rouge, M. *Lamotte* made her this reply: "Some persons would altogether prohibit you the use of it: but this perhaps you would consider as very hard; and others might allow you to indulge in it unrestrained, which would be too complying: now I shall take the middle course, and give you permission to use it on one cheek."'

By his pleasantry, the Bishop of Amiens could make every body laugh; and when he officiated *pontifically*, (*pontificalement*,) he could stop the ravages of the plague! What an agreeable and useful man!

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